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HISTORY
OF THE
UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA

1819 - 1919

PHILIP ALEXANDER BRUCE



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**HISTORY OF THE UNIVERSITY
OF VIRGINIA**

1819—1919

VOLUME V



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Soaring like an eagle into new heavens of valor and devotion

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HISTORY
OF THE
UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA
1819-1919

The Lengthened Shadow of One Man

BY
PHILIP ALEXANDER BRUCE, LL.B., LL.D.

AUTHOR OF
"Economic, Institutional, and Social Histories of Virginia in the
Seventeenth Century;" "Plantation Negro as a Freeman;"
"Rise of the New South;" "Life of General Robert E.
"Lee;" "Brave Deeds of Confederate Soldiers;"
"Short History of United States," etc., etc.

Centennial Edition

VOLUME V

STANFORD : 1922

NEW YORK
THE MACMILLAN COMPANY

1922

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UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA

Set up and Printed. Published June, 1922.

293408

YVA 281 0807MAY 2

PRINTED IN U. S. A.

FOREWORD

The period from 1904 to 1919 was, from some points of view, an interval in the history of the University of Virginia as vital in its importance as the formative and experimental period from 1825 to 1842; for it was during this interval that the revolutionary influences which sprang up within the precincts after the collapse of the old order in 1865, reached such a pitch of development as to make certain the indefinite prolongation of the changes which those influences had brought about in the scope and tendencies of the institution. We are now able to perceive and appraise with accuracy the new foundations on which the structure of the University not only rests at this time, but will continue to rest for an unlimited number of years, in spite of modifications and expansions in policy which may be dictated by the course of events. It is the stability of the conditions which exist today, and the assurance of their perpetuation, in fundamentals at least, that justify the fullness with which this period has been treated by us. And there is still another justification in the fact that, during this period, the University of Virginia was a workshop in which all the educational influences then, and still, shaping the welfare of the Southern States were in active and successful operation. The record of the Ninth Period is not simply the record of a single institution of learning,—it is the record of a whole people, for that length of time, in the most important province of their community life. Of this

FOREWORD

fact, we have never for a moment lost sight in our contemplation of each aspect of our subject; and it should not be forgotten by our readers in valuing the details which we present, however small their significance apparently may be, or however cumulatively or voluminously they may seemingly be set forth.

P. A. B.

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HISTORY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA

NINTH PERIOD

THE PRESIDENCY, 1904-1919

1. *The Presidency — The First Suggestion*

In our preceding volumes, we referred incidentally to the altered economic and social conditions which prevailed in the Southern States during the long interval between 1865-1904. The influence of these conditions was perceptible in the life of that region many years before the close of the nineteenth century; but it was not until the end of the interval just mentioned that this influence became overwhelmingly predominant; and every twelve months which have passed since then have only served to increase its controlling power. Unless we bear in mind the existence of these all-pervading, all-comprehending conditions,—which were unknown in the South before the abolition of slavery, and which did not begin to display their full force until many decades thereafter had gone by,—we cannot thoroughly gauge the external pressure, which, since 1904, has moulded the destinies of the University of Virginia to as great a degree from without as the scholastic work of the institution has moulded those destinies from within. With this background clearly understood, much that would otherwise be obscure becomes plainly intelligible.

To recapitulate these conditions briefly: the first characteristic of the change was the uprooting of the old plantation system, and along with that system, the social order which it had upheld,—this meant the practical destruction of individualism as the chief factor of civic polity, the consequent establishment of the public school, and the spread of the community spirit. The second feature was the rise of industrialism, as most conspicuously illustrated in manufactures. This signified the growth of towns, the creation of new social forces, the expansion of more diversified interests, and the demand for more cooperative effort in every line.

How did these influences at work in the altered South most palpably affect the operations of the University? They caused, first, the introduction of the Presidency; and secondly, they made that institution the real capstone of the public school system of the State. These were not the only marked changes which those influences brought about, but they were certainly the most salient.

One of the most impressive characteristics of a society in which both the industrial spirit and the community spirit have become predominant is an insistent demand for efficiency. The creation of the Presidency did not have its origin so much in the failure of the chairman of the Faculty to perform the functions of his office with a fair degree of success, as in the expectation that a President, invested with larger powers, could execute the same functions with far greater advantage to the University. In the course of the inaugural ceremonies on April 13, 1905, both Professor James M. Page and Professor Francis H. Smith very correctly pointed out that the condition of the institution was not so lacking in prosperity that, for this reason alone, a new form of government was imperative. The fundamen-

tal reason for the change was to be found in that new spirit of the South which refused to be satisfied with less than the highest degree of efficiency that was attainable, whether the organization to be piloted was scholastic or industrial in its character.

The authorities of the University, yielding to practical influences which pervaded the air itself, had arrived at an attitude of mind that was ready to sacrifice all the suggestions of conservative tradition, if the benefits of a larger usefulness were likely to follow. In allowing themselves to be governed by this general principle, they were not unfaithful to the convictions which had been expressed by Jefferson, the father of the University. In a letter which he wrote to his most loyal coadjutor, Cabell, in 1818, he made this pregnant remark: "Nobody could advocate more strongly than myself the right of every generation to legislate for itself, and the advantages which each succeeding generation has over the preceding one, from the constant progress of science and the arts." Would he have approved of the change to the Presidency under the influence of the opinion thus announced? There can be no question that, both in spirit and in practical operation, the chairmanship of the Faculty, to be held in rotation by each member of that body, was more democratic than the office of the average modern college president, with its more or less autocratic powers and broad personal responsibilities; and yet the period in which this office was established at the University of Virginia was certainly, from some vital points of view, more democratic in its tendencies than the period in which the original chairmanship was erected.

Had Jefferson been living in 1904, and been still in occupation of the rectorship, his sensitiveness to the

claims of new conditions would quite probably have led him voluntarily to consent to the abolition of the old form of administration, and the substitution of one less democratic, it is true, but better fitted to meet the complicated requirements of a more diversified society. We have seen how firmly he opposed the appointment of William Wirt to the Presidency, in spite of his profound respect for the character and ability of that distinguished advocate; and although he gracefully yielded to the wishes of his colleagues, and actually himself forwarded the invitation, there is small reason to think that his original opinion had been modified. At that time, there was no expectation of obtaining a more efficient administration by the creation of the new office. The only object in view was, by the additional salary, to induce some competent member of the bar to accept the new chair of law, which, so far, had remained vacant, in spite of the indefatigable efforts to fill it.

Had the Presidency been considered previous to this offer? The first reference to the office is found in a letter of Francis Walker Gilmer, which bore the date of August, 1824. He had been persistently urged by Jefferson and other friends to become a candidate for the professorship of law. He was now in Edinburgh, in search of an incumbent for the chair of physics. "If you would elect me President or something," he wrote Chapman Johnson, in a spirit of half-jocularly, "with the privilege of residing within three miles of the Rotunda, it would be a great inducement to me to accept." It is plain that he preferred the shady lawn of Pen Park to the finest pavilion of the University, even with the office of chief executive thrown in to give increased dignity to such a roof.

Did this suggestion, dropped so casually into

Johnson's mind, turn his thoughts as a Visitor to this form of administration for the new seat of culture? Probably not for the first time. Among all those interested in the welfare of the University, there was not one more discerning or more astute than he,—a man of genius, and also a man of practical affairs, one who had learned much from books, but still more from intercourse with mankind. He had, as a student, attended the College of William and Mary at the time that it was under the supervision of President Madison. It is possible that his recollection of the successful management of its interests by that wise and excellent prelate had given him a deep impression of the advantages of this kind of executive office for an institution of learning. However that may be, the conviction which he expressed on the subject in October, 1820, has quite as much the ring of modernity as if it had been uttered in 1921. "The first of all things needed," he wrote General Cocke, "is a president, not appointed by chance or seniority, but appointed by the Visitors, and holding his rank during their pleasure; not limited in his authority to the powers of a moderator at the board of professors, but clothed with the chief executive powers of the government, and charged with the superintendence of its discipline and police, and responsible for their due administration. I hold this to be a matter of the last importance to the good government of the University."

Jefferson did not share these emphatic views, and why? First, because, as we have already mentioned, he favored in every department of administration, whether it was scholastic or political, either a nice distribution of functions, or, should that not be practicable, an uniform rotation of powers. He had small

confidence in the continued integrity of any one man, or any set of men, who exercised authority above control, and for an indefinite period. The chairman of the Faculty was elected annually,—it followed that he would remain in office long enough to acquire valuable knowledge and experience, but not long enough to learn to consider himself supreme. Who can accurately gauge how far Jefferson's antagonism to the appointment of a President was colored by his recollection of the fact, that, with hardly an exception, the presidents of the colleges of those times were clergymen of the several denominations? Probably, he carried about with him the vision of old Bishop Madison lecturing to his class in clerical garb, and putting on his lawn sleeves on the occasion of every religious ceremony, and governing students and professors alike in the spirit of a shepherd gently yet firmly driving his docile flock.

Jefferson, in objecting to the substitution of the Presidency for the chairmanship, did not, however, bring forward his private convictions on the subject in justification, but founded his opposition on technical grounds: (1) the Board of Visitors, he said in substance, possessed no legal right to appoint a President of the University; (2) the institution was too poor to offer the additional salary which the office would call for; (3) such an office would be superfluous, as the chairman of the Faculty was already performing the duties which were to be attached to it.

The Board of Visitors had defined the powers of the proposed President in a very modern spirit,—he was to superintend the execution of the various laws made for the government of the institution; he was to have the right of control over the proctor, and all subordinate

agents, in the province of their official functions; he was to summon the Faculty together whenever it seemed to him, or to any two professors, that the University's interests required such a meeting to be held; he was to sit at the head of the table on such an occasion, with the privilege of casting one vote as a member of the Faculty, and a second vote in addition, should there be a tie; and, finally, in the case of his absence or sickness, his place was to be taken by a temporary chairman.

All these matured provisions were adopted with the understanding that, should Wirt decline the invitation, no substitute for him was to be looked for. "I voted for the creation of the office of President," Joseph C. Cabell remarked in a letter to Wirt himself, "with the single view of giving it to you, with an increase of salary. The creation of the office was for you alone." And after hearing of Wirt's refusal, he wrote to his brother, Governor Cabell, "I think that we had better not urge the appointment of the President any further. There is not now a member of the Faculty in whom such an appointment can be prudently lodged. The better way will be to give the necessary powers to the chairman of the Faculty, and let that office continue an annual one."

The impression had got abroad that the mere suggestion of the Presidency would be hurtful to the welfare of the University. "I am aware," wrote Wirt,—who had declined the position, ostensibly on the ground that he could not afford to give up the greater income which he derived from his practice, but who was probably more influenced by his knowledge of Jefferson's distaste for the change,— "I am aware that the interests of the institution require that this transaction should not

be made public, so far at least as the office created for the occasion; and I will take care that it secures no publicity from me."

II. *The Presidency — Suggested After 1825*

Although Jefferson himself had been constrained to acknowledge that the disorders among the students in 1824 were due to the lax system of government which he had devised for their control, there is no reason to suppose that he ever for a moment expected that the appointment of a President would prevent the recurrence of such turbulence because it would strengthen the hand of the University's police power. It is true that he favored the adoption of sterner regulations, and the exercise of more vigilant supervision, but, in his judgment, the existing chairman of the Faculty would be quite as competent as the proposed President in discharging these more vigorous executive functions.

Chapman Johnson, as we have already mentioned, did not share this opinion. Above all, General Cocke, who, like Johnson, was a man of affairs, and accustomed to think sturdily for himself, even when he stood in the very presence of the sage, had arrived at a different conclusion. "My observation at the University and daily reflection," he said to Cabell in the month of February, 1826, "more and more convince me that we shall never have an efficient government there without a Head. I believe that the majority of the professors are convinced of it." And in the following July, only a few days after the news of Jefferson's death had reached him, he wrote to the same colleague on the Board, "I hear that there is a suspension of the lectures at the University by some of the professors for a fortnight, and by some for a month. This is a specimen of our

No Head Government." The session, at this time, was so arranged as to extend through the entire summer, and the discontinuance of any of the recitations was contrary to the expressed provisions of the enactments.

But neither Chapman Johnson nor General Cocke, in spite of their great ability and wide personal influence, was able to shake the stability of that administrative machinery which Jefferson had created. The original rule requiring rotation in the chairmanship might be abrogated, but the chairmanship itself, consecrated by the reputation of its creator, and clothed with that conservative glamour which comes into existence with the progress of time, stood firmly amid all the fluctuations in the pecuniary fortunes of the institution, and amid all those wild commotions which so often destroyed its peace. On rare occasions, when a feeling of desperation would sweep over the Visitors, in consequence of these disturbances, some one among them would vehemently suggest the panacea of a new executive office, with far more radical powers. "The Board," exclaimed Andrew Stevenson, in June, 1841, "must do something about the Presidency. We can't get along without a President. The more I have reflected on the subject, the more thoroughly I am convinced of its importance. The experiment should be made, and the sooner the better." These were almost precisely the words which the equally impatient and the equally practical Cocke had used, under the same provocation; and it may be taken for granted that he had not changed his opinion.

Four years later, when the University had only recently been convulsed by a riot of extraordinary violence, the dissatisfaction with the existing system of government caused a reversion to the thought of the

Presidency as a possible means of assuring a condition of perfect quietude, without these discreditable interludes of disorder. In June, 1845, in anticipation of the annual meeting of the Board of Visitors, Professor William B. Rogers informed his brother Henry by letter that new schemes of administration would probably be broached when the members of that body assembled in July. The one that was most frequently talked of, and apparently the one that was most popular, he said, was the conversion of the chairmanship into a permanent office, or what was to amount to the same thing, into the Presidency. "Every one has his nostrum for the college evils," he remarked rather drily and wearily, "and this seems to be in great favor just now." Only a few members of the Faculty, however, thought that the creation of this office would remove that "want of uniformity of administration" which was supposed to be at the bottom of the malign conditions within the precincts now causing so much uneasiness.

The *Richmond Whig*, which, as we have seen, had so often acidly criticised the management of the University's affairs in the past, threw the weight of its influence in the scale of establishing the Presidency. "The advantages of the office," it said, "were obvious. The Visitors, aware that the incumbent will hold his office for an indefinite period, will select no one but one whose talents, probity, and capacity for controlling and directing youth have been tested by experience. The President, by remaining long in his position, will acquire a thorough knowledge of the disposition and nature of young men, and the laws necessary for their discipline."

That this reasoned opinion was shared by the Board of Visitors was clearly indicated by the instructions which they gave to their executive committee on the

occasion of the meeting in July,—this committee was requested to draw up a report upon the advisability of bestowing upon the professor who should be chosen for the new chair of history and literature all the powers usually vested in the office of President. It is possible that this action was taken by the Board under the influence of a suggestion which had been recently made by the Society of Alumni at their annual meeting. On that occasion, the latter had, by formal resolution, declared themselves in favor of conferring on some member of the Faculty, of proven qualifications, all the executive powers of the institution, and then reelecting him, from year to year, as long as he should continue to show the necessary ability, assiduity, and fidelity. They recommended that he should be entitled the “President of the University.”

Dr. James L. Cabell, writing to his uncle, Joseph C. Cabell, in January, 1846, about six months afterwards, suggested that James M. Mason, then conspicuous in political life, and destined to become more prominent still during the period of the Confederacy, should be chosen for the office, if the Board should decide to create it. R. M. T. Hunter, who was a colleague of Mason in Congress, having heard that the future incumbent of the projected chair of history and literature was also to discharge the duties of President, and was to be known by that title, recommended Caleb Cushing, the distinguished publicist of Massachusetts, for both positions. “Whether he would take the chair without the Presidency, I know not,” he said to a member of the Board. “You propose Mason, and I most cordially concur. If he would take the place, he would make the best President I know of.”

While these exchanges of views and recommendations

were going on, Professor William B. Rogers had been inquiring privately of his brother Henry, then residing in Boston, as to how far the experience of Harvard College touching its Presidency would justify the University of Virginia in imitating that institution by creating the same office for its own administration. What were the advantages of that form of government? What were the disadvantages? Such were the principal questions which Henry Rogers asked of President Quincy. "I deem the functions of the President," was the reply, "of the utmost relief to the Faculty of Harvard. He has no duties as instructor, but his great business is to overlook the conduct of the young men, and, by timely interference, suppress bad habits, detect delinquencies, and administer reproof and punishment in all instances in which he could do so apart from the Faculty."

It will be recalled, that, after the riot of 1845, a legislative committee, appointed during the first following session of the General Assembly, visited the University of Virginia in order to report upon the causes of the late turbulence, and to suggest some means of preventing its recurrence. In replying to a question asked by this committee, the Visitors, very much disheartened, acknowledged that there was some fundamental defect in the institution's existing plan of government; and that the only possible remedy for this defect which they could think of was the appointment of a President — a permanent executive,— who could be held responsible for the strict discipline of the students, and for the proper management of every other department of the University's affairs. "His character," they said, "by the singleness and elevation of his position, would be identified with the character and good order of the in-

stitution." Their recommendation won the approval of the committee. Mr. Alexander was the spokesman, and in the address which he delivered in the House of Delegates on the committee's return to Richmond, he counseled the early election of a President, as the only officer who was likely to command respect for the University's laws and enforce a lasting state of peace. What kind of a man must he be? He must possess great moral excellence, fine literary culture, and urbane and conciliatory manners. A person of this character, asserted Mr. Alexander, would, as President, be in a freer position to inspire awe and compel submission in cases of disorder than he would be as chairman of the Faculty, for the time and energies of the latter,—as was well known,—were chiefly taken up with discharging the ordinary routine duties of his post. The change would, it is true, be in the nature of an experiment, but it was an experiment that had proved successful in other colleges.

The General Assembly must, at first, have been favorable to the adoption of the change proposed, for Professor George Tucker, who happened, at this time, to be in Richmond,—perhaps in the character of a witness,—informed Professor Gessner Harrison by letter that the appointment of a President would soon be authorized; and that the new office would be invested with powers larger, not only than those of the chairmanship, but also of the Faculty itself as a body.

Why was it that an innovation which was so generally acknowledged to be desirable failed so signally so long to become a part of the University's organic law? There were two reasons for the falling down of the proposal. First, the original suggestion had been made, not for the purpose of increasing the purely material prosperity of the institution,—which was the influence

that brought about the adoption of the change in 1904, — but because it was thought to be the most effective means of putting an end to the constantly recurring turbulence among the students. There was always a hope that each disorderly incident would be the last, — at least on an important scale; and so long as this expectation remained, the disposition was to put off the subversion of the existing system, which, in its operation in other provinces, had turned out to be so successful. In the second place, there was ground for apprehending that the addition of the Presidency to the other offices would impose a burden of expense on the institution which it would be unable to carry with ease. It was anticipated that no competent person could be engaged who would be willing to serve for an annual salary smaller than twenty-five hundred dollars, which would swallow up exactly one-sixth of the yearly revenue to be granted by the General Assembly. Besides, at this time, that body was requiring the University to give, not only free tuition, but free board, to thirty-two State students, at an annual cost to its treasury of thirty-five hundred dollars. Pile the charges of the proposed Presidency upon this gratuitous outlay, and the State annuity would be practically cut down nearly one-half of its total amount.

The Faculty, as a whole,— as might have been predicted,— had little patience or sympathy with the advocates of the suggested alteration, if, for no other reason, because it would certainly diminish the authority and, thereby, the importance of that body. Professor John B. Minor, who, as we have seen, favored an addition to the powers of the Faculty at the expense of the powers of the Board of Visitors, voiced the conviction of his colleagues when he said that the “benefits of the Jeffersonian

system of college government preponderated over the disadvantages." And why? "It makes," he continued, "the institution less dependent on a single man, generates a more lively interest in its fortunes amongst all the members of the Faculty, each of whom feels a due share of responsibility for its success; and by exercising all more or less in administration, fits them, to a greater or less degree, for its duties."

III. *The Presidency — Suggested After 1865*

When the war ended, and the prospects of the University at the start appeared to be so overclouded, the proposition of establishing the Presidency was again broached. Now, for the first time, the need of the office as a means of building up the purely material fortunes of the institution was earnestly discussed; but it would seem that it was not the members of the Faculty or the Board of Visitors, but the alumni, who suggested its creation. This project came to nothing, as the attendance in the beginning proved to be unexpectedly large. By 1872, the students had, for one reason or another, shrunk in number. Soon the agitation of the question of electing a President was renewed among the alumni, but, as before, not among the instructors or the Visitors. In a letter to N. F. Cabell, a nephew of Joseph C. Cabell, and editor of the *Jefferson-Cabell Correspondence*, Professor Minor, in the course of that year, reaffirmed his own loyalty, and, apparently, the loyalty of all his colleagues, to the prevailing system of the chairmanship. Mr. Cabell earnestly deprecated such an expression. "I think," he said, "that the objection to the Presidency may be obviated, whilst the institution itself might have all the advantages of such an office. Had such an office been created immediately

after the war, and General Lee invited thereto, how different might have been its status!"

This is the first indication, in an authoritative form, which we have been able to discover that the name of the Confederate Commander was ever thought of in connection with that office at the University of Virginia. A report has long been in existence that it was definitely and formally offered to him; but, so far as we are aware, there is no entry in the records of the institution, and no reference in the *Lee Correspondence*, to justify the acceptance of such a statement as correct. The words used by Mr. Cabell would seem to demonstrate that a popular impression prevailed that General Lee had not been invited to fill the Presidency; and that there had never been any intention of creating the post for his incumbency. Mr. Cabell shows a very natural impatience with a policy which obtusely failed to seize an opportunity so full of promise for the immediate prosperity and lasting distinction of the institution; and this feeling has been shared by persons of the generations which have followed those times. The plaster-cast and straight-jacket of ultra conservatism have, on more than one occasion, constricted the growth of the University of Virginia; but the influence of this attitude of mind, pushed beyond the bounds of moderation, has never, for that institution, worked more unfortunately than when it stood in the way of the selection of one of the greatest and noblest men of the ages for the office of its first President. Identified as the University had always been with the Southern States as a whole, his appointment would have consecrated that relation with the halo that will forever linger around his memory as the most splendid of Southern champions, and with the exception of Washington, the loftiest representative of Southern

genius and virtue. It does not seem improbable that, had the invitation been held out to him previous to the overture of another seat of learning, it would have been accepted by him, unless he would have shrunk from the greater publicity pertaining to a residence situated less remotely from the world at large than Lexington, and to the headship of an institution of a National, instead of mere State, reputation.¹

The earliest sign of a change of opinion touching the practical sufficiency of the chairmanship which we detect in the Faculty's attitude was discernible about 1885, when a standing committee of three professors was appointed to take charge of the external relations of the University,—that province in which a President was expected to prove most useful; but their colleagues' jealousy even of such a limited power as this was shown in their requirement that every important step actually taken by that committee should have received the approval of the Faculty as a whole beforehand. The students, however, being entirely free from the burden of collegiate responsibilities, displayed an almost scornful impatience with the timidity of their professorial superiors. The editors of the magazine boldly proposed that the office of President should be at once created. "The spirit of the age," they asserted emphatically, "calls for the innovation. Every prominent seat of learning in the United States, except our own, has adopted it. Who but a President could be expected to be on the *qui vive* always to advance the interest of his college, or to give blow for blow in one of those con-

¹ Since the above was written, the following passage in Riley's *General Robert E. Lee after Appomattox*, just issued, has come to our notice: "To some suggestions (in private) that he should connect himself with the University of Virginia he objected because it was a State institution." A formal and pressing invitation might have overcome this objection.

troversial storms which are always raging in the educational firmament."

College Topics, in 1891, with the rashness of youth, or that wisdom, which we are told, sometimes proceeds from the mouths even of babes, had the audacity to dispute the good sense of the Jeffersonian system of administration. Was not the chairman of the Faculty primarily a professor in a particular school, and only secondarily the chief executive of the University? This being so, how was it possible for him to discharge properly the intricate business details so continuously intrusted to his judgment? Had not Jefferson's plan of organization been simply tentative and theoretic? After all, was he not a mere idealist, nurtured in the school of the French Revolution? Did anyone really think that his business principles,—if he had any at all,—or his financial methods, were entitled to modern consideration? In the opinion of the editors of this periodical, no answer but a negative one could be returned to these iconoclastic interrogatories. Two years afterwards, the same periodical renewed its assault upon the existing system of administration. "Why should the Board of Visitors," it asked, "be confined in their selection of a chairman to one of twenty-two men, some of whom refuse to serve, and some are not qualified to do so? What were the characteristics demanded in a President? Good executive ability, honesty, truthfulness, straightforwardness, a fixed standard and firmness in maintaining it. He should be impartial, just, tactful, and discreet; and should be respected and trusted by the student body."

At the hour when the Faculty were turning to the cumbersome device of a committee to furnish a substitute for a President, and the students, with youthful boldness and

unyouthful sagacity, were demanding the unhesitating creation of that office, the Board of Visitors, with whom the final authority rested, seemed to shrink from the consideration of the suggested change. Apparently, this body, at that time, was unalterably hostile to the adoption of a new executive system.

IV. *The Presidency — Resolution of 1896*

But by 1895–96, a new spirit had begun to be exhibited by at least some of the Visitors. “When I first went on the Board in 1894,” says Armistead C. Gordon, afterwards the rector of the University, “it did not take me six months to realize that, under the system of business administration then existing, the University was losing its students to other institutions, North and South; that it was in an almost moribund condition; and that it was entirely incapable, however high its scholarship or admirable its literary methods, of competing, in the midst of the decay of the old private classical schools, with other higher institutions of learning, fed by the tremendously growing public school system,—a system then totally inadequate to University preparation. I saw too that, in its domestic management, existing and developing defects were many, and if they were irremediable, as they appeared to be under the then system of government, they would tend to the institution’s gradual and final decay. The Faculty was torn by radical differences of opinion; there was no liaison between its members as a body and the Board of Visitors through any responsible administrative head, because the chairman was himself a member of the Faculty. The conditions that prevailed were more or less chaotic.”¹

By June, 1896, these conditions had not improved,

¹ From private letter to author.

and Mr. Gordon, at a meeting of the Board held on the 16th of that month, submitted a resolution calling for the appointment of a committee which was to report upon the advisability of electing an officer empowered to serve as the executive of the institution, and in that capacity, to assume the direct personal charge of all its affairs. It will be observed that the author of this resolution, in drafting it, avoided the use of the word "President," either because, for the moment, it was desired, in a spirit of conservatism, to retain the old title, or because the employment of the designation at that stage might increase the opposition to the proposed alteration in the administrative system. Mr. Gordon was appointed chairman of this committee, and William B. McIlwaine and Joseph Bryan, of the Board, were associated with him as members. All three, by their connection with the University, both as alumni and as Visitors, were thoroughly in sympathy with all its traditions; but they were also experienced men of affairs who understood the value of practical tests.

Mr. Bryan did not think that the hour had yet arrived for a change. Mr. Gordon and Mr. McIlwaine dissented from this view. "Competition," they declared in their majority report, "is no less keen in the educational world than in that of business; and other conditions being equal, that University will be most successful in the race which adds to the best discipline the best instruction, and to the best instruction and best scholarship, the best business management. To ensure the latter, it was necessary that the executive head should be unhampered in the discharge of his administrative duties by the duties of a professor." So, in turn, no professor, in their opinion, should be encumbered with the former duties. They

concluded with the recommendation that a President should be appointed for a term of four years, at an annual salary of five thousand dollars; that he should be required to discharge the main functions now incident to the chairmanship; that he should be expected to familiarize himself with those educational methods which had been adopted in the most advanced seats of learning of the world; that he should be called on to visit the principal cities periodically in order to stimulate the interest of the alumni in the welfare of the University; and that he should be looked to, to suggest administrative changes of value for the consideration of the Board, and to assist the professors in developing their respective schools.

The chairmanship of the Faculty was to be retained, but the independent executive duties of the incumbent were to be limited to the right to convene the members of that body; to sit at the head of the table at their meetings; and to enforce the numerous regulations which had been passed to maintain discipline among the students. He was also to take the place of the President in the absence of that officer; and was, at all times, to serve as the medium of communication between him and the members of the Faculty.

Mr. Bryan, in the minority report, asserted that the appointment of a President would be repugnant to the fundamental theory upon which the University had been organized, and to which it had been loyal for a period of seventy years; that this theory left no room for the creation of a one-man power in the government of the institution; that, in the present era, the office of President called for both a scholar and a business manager to fill it, and such a combination of qualities it would, perhaps, be impossible to find; that the appropriation of a new

salary and the outlay for travelling expenses,—both of which would be necessary,—would impose an intolerable charge upon the resources of the treasury; that the office was certain to become one of the footballs of State politics; that its allurements would be so irresistible that many gentlemen of dignified presence, elegant manners, general culture, and acknowledged eloquence, would desire to rush into the vacuum without any real intention of devoting their abilities and energies to practical administration; that, when once the Presidency had been occupied by a man of this type, it would require something more than a crowbar to prize him out, for he was quite sure to be a man of a pugnacious disposition, who would resist removal tooth and claw, and thus precipitate a scandalous row,—which could not fail to tarnish the dignity of the institution.

Mr. Bryan predicted that the alteration of the existing system would damage the standing of the professors, since it would subordinate them completely to a supreme head, thus destroying that independence of the individual school which Jefferson had considered to be of the first importance. Under such a shadow, it would be difficult to obtain scholars of the highest attainments to accept a vacancy in the Faculty. A President was not needed to stimulate the generous spirit of the alumni, as the history of the University had demonstrated; he was not needed to strengthen the arm of discipline, for the majority report itself had expressly left this branch of the administration under the control of the chairman as of old; it was not needed for the preservation of the University's property, for every one admitted that the proctor had discharged the duty of general oversight with success. To confirm and further buttress his argument, Mr. Bryan appended a statement of the opinion

which Jefferson had expressed in 1826, when Wirt had been nominated.

Had the conditions and tendencies observable in the Southern States in 1896 been the same as those discernible in 1850 or 1860, or even in 1870, the conclusions so forcibly expressed in the minority report could not have been refuted. But the conditions and the tendencies alike had undergone a radical transformation; and it was the authors of the majority report, not the author of the minority report, who had gauged correctly what the University's welfare really called for. Nor, in submitting their proposition, had they been disloyal to Jefferson's spirit, for had he not said, with that prescience which distinguished so many of his utterances, that each generation understood its own wants best? and that to each generation should be left the decision as to what measures it should adopt for its own good? The office of President might not be introduced at once, but its ultimate creation could not be prevented, simply because the movement in its favor was but one phase of that universal movement in the Southern States which imperatively demanded the highest efficiency in every department of their affairs.

v. The Presidency — William Gordon McCabe

Although the two reports were read with keen interest, yet, for the present moment, no change was brought about by the practical reasoning of the majority of the committee. In time, however, the vigorous and lucid argument in favor of the Presidency embodied in their report encouraged the friends of at least one conspicuous scholar to advocate his appointment, should the office be created,—as many alumni now anticipated it would be. In a previous volume, we have described the successful

part which Colonel McCabe took, as a member of the Board of Visitors, in liberalizing the courses assigned to the principal academic degrees. When the supposed need of the Presidency became, in 1896, a topic of popular discussion, attention was at once directed to his striking fitness for discharging the varied duties of the office. Apparently, indeed, he possessed all the qualifications which the incumbency of that position called for.

First of all, he was a citizen of the world, who had associated, on a footing of intellectual equality, with many of the most famous men of his age, regardless of their country or clime, profession or business. His personal charm, originating in his keen wit and genial temper, and enhanced by culture and travel, would make him an almost unequaled host in entertaining the eminent guests,—the literary and scientific lecturers of high reputation,—who would be visiting the University from time to time. He was an alumnus of the institution,—therefore, he would, by the force of intuition, understand its peculiar spirit, value its traditions with filial loyalty and tenderness, and, at all times, be willing to sacrifice his means, his energies, and his hours for the furtherance of its welfare. He was a native of Virginia,—therefore, he would be conversant with all those local currents of sentiment and opinion which had to be taken into tactful account in managing the affairs of the University. He personally knew all the influential men of the State, and enjoyed the friendship of many of them and the respect of all. During many years, he had been a member of the Board of Visitors, and had thus gained a thorough knowledge of the diversified interests of the institution. He had displayed remarkable capacity as a man of business,—which would aid him to perform with success the administrative duties of the Presidency. He

was a scholar whose attainments were admired by the greatest classical students of his age; he was a *litterateur*, the productions of whose pen had won popularity by their brilliant and varied merit; he was a public speaker who never failed to captivate by his polished wit and instruct by his solid information; and, in addition to all these very pertinent characteristics, he had been both a soldier and a teacher, and in the one school of discipline had learned how to command men, and in the other, how to control the young.

No one knew Colonel McCabe more intimately on every side of his individuality than Professor Thomas R. Price, himself one of the most accomplished gentlemen of that day, a gallant officer, an inspiring instructor, a finished writer, the pink of courtesy and urbanity in his personal deportment. "McCabe," he affirmed in a letter to Dr. W. C. N. Randolph, the rector of the University, "is the one man, that, by a strange combination of gifts, is exactly fitted, as perennial chairman, to do the institution a noble service by his sagacity, his shrewdness, his insight into things and men, his prudence, his perfect honesty, his ability to make friends and acquire personal influence, his rare and delicate scholarship, his brilliant form of eloquence, that would enable him to represent the University and the Southern system with splendid force and effectiveness."

In answering this commendatory letter, Dr. Randolph voiced an opinion which was held by many others during this period; namely, that the creation of the Presidential office, without restriction in its general powers, would (1) destroy the independence of the different schools which had existed from the time of Jefferson; and (2) deprive the Faculty of their right of discipline over the whole body of the students,—which would re-

move the most direct means of encouraging a sound public sentiment within the precincts. Dr. Randolph declared himself in favor of the introduction of the Presidency provided that all questions involving discipline should be left to the decision of the chairman, as recommended by Mr. Gordon and Mr. McIlwaine in their majority report. "The name of President," he said, "I hate. It is almost as common as that of the time-worn Virginia and Southern Colonel." Professor Price also thought that there was "something odious and vulgar" in that title. Both preferred the designation of "chancellor."

Dr. Randolph, as time passed, became more firmly convinced that an executive head, by whatever name he might be called, was indispensable. "Such an officer is needed," said he, "in order to cope with the rapid growth in the external business relations of the University; to develop further the practical relations with the alumni; and to get in closer bonds with other educational institutions. In Jefferson's day, there were no external relations, no educational societies, no alumni to be taken into consideration. The chairman of the Faculty cannot give the proper amount of attention to all these interests, as his time is absorbed in discharging the duties of his position. The proctor cannot give it, as he has eight hundred accounts to keep, and can leave his office only for a few hours a day. The Rector and Visitors cannot give it, for they hold office only for a short time, and are constantly occupied with their own private affairs."

What was the attitude of the members of the Faculty in the course of this anxious and conflicting debate? A resolution adopted by that body in May (1897) would seem to reflect an emotion of resentment because

they had not, from the threshold of the discussion, been taken into the confidence of the Board of Visitors. A rumor that found its way into the columns of the newspapers was said to have been the first information which they received that a change in the University's form of government was contemplated. They asked for a "full and free conference" with the Board; and this request was accompanied by a feeling statement of their position. "By long and constant residence," they said, "the Faculty are intimately acquainted with the internal operations of the University, not only in minute detail, but also in general bearing; and by personal experience are enabled to appraise accurately their deficiency and sufficiency. Moreover, the Faculty are able to judge clearly and exactly concerning the external relations of the University,—to the State and its citizens, and to the educational institutions in Virginia and elsewhere; and also to estimate rightly the comparative advantages of different policies in organization and management, and the comparative efficiency of various systems of education. The several members of the Faculty have devoted their lives to the work of University organization, management, and instruction. This is their distinct and formal profession,—a profession to which all their abilities and acquirements are devoted; in which their public and private reputation is involved; and of which, they were supposed to have competent knowledge. Besides, it is their livelihood, both at present and prospectively. Thus with the University are bound up their personal and professional reputation, their year-by-year sustenance, and whatever of disinterested regard they may be granted to have for the cause of good education, and for the general welfare of the State."

So soon as the Faculty's request for an interview

reached the Board of Visitors, they sent back an affirmative reply; but at the very hour that this favorable announcement was received by the former body, the members of the Board put themselves on record as being hostile to the creation of the office of President. The influence of the Faculty, joined to that of numerous alumni who were inimical to the proposed change, seems to have been powerful enough, at this time, to prevent the adoption of the recommendation so warmly urged in the majority report drafted by Mr. Gordon and Mr. McIlwaine.

VI. *The Presidency — George W. Miles*

About five years afterwards, the rumor was bruited abroad that the Board of Visitors had at last decided to elect a President of the University, and that their choice had already fallen upon a specific individual. The name of this person was soon revealed. It was Colonel George W. Miles, of Radford, Southwest Virginia. Colonel Miles had been a member of Governor Tyler's official staff, and had also occupied a seat on the Board of Visitors. When appointed to the latter position in February, 1898, the number of students in attendance on the lectures was in the neighborhood of four hundred only; and there had been a deficit of ten thousand dollars for the last fiscal year. The amount devoted to the cost of advertisement was limited to three hundred dollars. A resolution was submitted by Colonel Miles, which provided for an appropriation of three thousand dollars for that purpose; and it was afterwards said that it was due to this more liberal expenditure that one hundred students were added to the roll of matriculates, and that a surplus of ten thousand dollars took the place of the former deficit. Friction had arisen

at once when the chairman of the Faculty asserted his exclusive right to lay out the advertisement fund in harmony with the suggestions of his own judgment. But causes for irritation, it seems, had existed before this conflict of authority,—as a matter of fact, the Faculty had not been working in complete accord with the Board of Visitors since the debate over the creation of the office of President began in 1896.

The existing bad feeling, joined to a decline in number of students, with the consequent falling off in financial resources, appears to have drawn the thoughts of the Board, with renewed interest, to the election of a President. On the motion of Colonel Miles, the incumbency of the projected office was offered to Woodrow Wilson, of Princeton University, whose reason for declining then was, no doubt, precisely the one which he expressed privately as follows at a later date: "I understood the situation perfectly," he wrote Professor R. H. Dabney in November, 1902, "namely, that while they (the Faculty) were unwilling to have any President, if a President was to be given to them I would be more acceptable to them than any other person who could be chosen. It was my knowledge of that attitude on their part, more than anything else, that inclined me to take the matter seriously under consideration; and the reason why it did not go further was simply that the men here were so overwhelmingly opposed to it, and were so immeasurably gracious to me, that I felt that it would be mere ingratitude to leave them."

So keen was Colonel Miles's interest in the subject, that, during the next few years, he endeavored to influence the Board of Visitors to offer the position to other men of equal prominence, but this body declined to do so. It seems that his own name was first suggested for the

office by Daniel Harmon, a member of the Board at that time. He was informed of this fact by Carter Glass,—also a member of the Board,—when the Visitors assembled in June, 1902. Other members of that Board were equally friendly to his candidacy. It was known, to Colonel Miles's credit, that he had built up the excellent school of St. Albans at Radford; that he had been successful in the management of large business affairs; that he possessed a wide acquaintance among the public men of the State; that he was a speaker of decided ability; and that, as one of the Visitors, he had been most active in discharging the duties of the position. All these were weighty qualifications for an exacting executive office.

In the beginning, he refused to permit his name to be used, on the ground that his business interests demanded his attention exclusively. Afterwards, he disposed of these interests to advantage, and thus was at liberty to accept the overture of the Board, should it be renewed. Having previously visited the chairman of the Faculty in his office, he, in August (1902), informed the rector, Charles P. Jones, that he was a candidate for the position of executive head of the University and then forwarded the resignation of his membership in the Board to the Governor of the State. The first public reference to his candidacy appeared in the columns of the *Richmond Times* in the course of the following September. Colonel Miles found earnest supporters among the members of the Faculty; especially in Colonel Peters, Professor Thornton, and Professor Kent; but a majority of the remaining members were so warmly opposed to his success, that they met and drew up a statement of objections to his candidacy.

On October 13, before these objections had been con-

sidered by the Board of Visitors, the Faculty assembled and adopted as their own a paper of exceptional ability which had already been drafted by one of the members in exposition of a plan of government for the University. The substance of this paper was as follows. Under the system which then existed, the Board of Visitors, through their constitutional advisers and agents, were called upon to weigh and adopt measures with respect to (1) dealings with students; (2) dealings with professors and employees; (3) University expenses; (4) administration of funds; and (5) intercourse with the public. The Faculty declared that they themselves were the most efficient advisers and agents of the Board in regard to all branches of the subject of dealings with the students. They admitted that, as to the other four heads, they would not be in a position to counsel as effectively as a single executive could do. There were, they said, three choices confronting the Board: (1) to retain the present system unaltered; (2) to elect a President, who would take over all the executive functions; or (3) to confer some of these functions on the Faculty and some on the President.

It was the Faculty's conviction that the third alternative was the one which it would be wisest to adopt, provided that their own powers were confined to dealings with the students. By "dealings with the students" was meant all questions involving the conduct of the latter, their attendance upon class, their application to their books, their pursuit of athletics, the scope of lectures and examinations, the standards of instruction, the number of studies, the character of degrees, and the choice of volumes for the library and of apparatus and materials for the laboratories. The Faculty thought that there were distinct advantages in

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reserving this province for their own supervision: first, it would increase the importance of the professor as an individual and of the Faculty as a body, in the eyes of the students; and second, it would preserve the independence of the schools as originally designed.

The Faculty acknowledged the superiority of a President as the agent of the Board in managing every other department of the University's affairs, both external and internal,—such as the selection of professors and employees; the determination of the students' fees and the professors' salaries; the investment of University funds; the acquisition of State appropriations and private benefactions; the supervision and improvement of the University grounds; the calculation of the annual budgets; the creation of new chairs and scholarships; the intercourse with colleges and universities; the attendance at public meetings; the communications with alumni; and the entertainment of strangers.

In substance, the plan proposed by the Faculty divided the advisory and executive functions into two groups,—over one, the Faculty was to be subordinate only to the Board of Visitors; and over the other, the President was to be subordinate only to that Board also. They were convinced that, relieved from the larger part of their executive control of the University, they would have more time to give up to the performance of their duties as professors and to original research; that the University funds would be periodically distributed among the various departments with a more discriminating understanding of the best interests of all; and that the new instructors would be selected after more intelligent inquiry into their merits and claims. The Faculty advised that the General Assembly's consent should be obtained to an enactment, in amendment of the code,

allowing the office of President to be created, and authorizing the Board to fill it. Provision should also be made that the right of nomination was to be possessed by a committee of three members of the Board, three of the Faculty, and three of the alumni society. The Board as a body should have the right to reject any nomination submitted by these three committees.

This thoughtful plan of the Faculty was adopted by the voices of all the members who were present, seventeen in number. Professors Smith, Peters, N. K. Davis, Thornton, Kent, Buckmaster, and Page were absent, but cast their votes by letter. Buckmaster and Page wrote in approval of the plan; but Professor Thornton was opposed to it, on the ground that it divided the executive responsibility, while Professor Kent considered the discussion of any plan whatever to be inopportune. In the meanwhile, a copy of the statement of objections to the candidacy of Colonel Miles had been sent to him.

A canvass at once began, marked by intemperate opposition on one side, and by very vigorous support on the other. Many letters were addressed to the newspapers advocating or deprecating the proposed action of the Board. The response of the hostile alumni was immediate,—formal objections were lodged by many of the chapters, and vehement resolutions were adopted by the students in mass-meeting. Colonel Miles too was backed by numerous partisans, and one of the most pertinent of these was the *Richmond News-Leader*. "He came from a new country, the Southwest," said that journal, "a country occupied by a new people palpitating with eagerness and striving to go ahead. He entered a settled, old, peaceful establishment, where the methods were easy-going and leisurely. With sharply opposed

forces, methods, sentiments, and purposes in the Faculty and Board of Visitors, antagonism was inevitable. Accustomed to deal in a hurry, and by clean-cut decisions, with large issues and properties and wide principles, Colonel Miles was impatient of the things that loomed so large to men living and thinking in seclusion. It was inevitable that he should be thoroughly disliked by the Faculty, which he was always nagging, goading, urging, stirring, and pushing."

It seems that the intention of the members of the Board of Visitors, all of whom favored Colonel Miles, was to elect him to an office to be known as the "Permanent Chairmanship of the Faculty," for, without an act of the General Assembly, it was impossible to establish legally the office of President. He was also to deliver a course of lectures on the subject of economics, for which he was, at that time, not fully equipped, as he had received no scientific education. He had, in fact, spent but two years at the University of Virginia as a student, and, during his stay there, had won diplomas only in the Schools of Latin, German, and French Languages. Among the members of the Board of Visitors, at this time, were Charles P. Jones, who was the rector, Carter Glass, afterwards Secretary of the Treasury and Senator in Congress, Henry C. Stuart, destined to become Governor of the State, R. Walton Moore, afterwards a member of the House of Representatives, R. Tate Irvine, who was rector subsequently, Judge A. W. Wallace, Eppa Hunton, Jr., H. H. Downing, and Daniel Harmon. All these members, with the exception of Carter Glass, were alumni of the University.

The Board convened on October 17, at three o'clock, but did not turn to the objections to Colonel Miles's candidacy, submitted by certain members of the Faculty,

until late at night. The paper was then read, and this was followed by the reading of similar communications from the alumni chapters of Norfolk, Richmond, and Baltimore, and handed in personally by their appointed representatives. There was also read a resolution which had been adopted by the Executive Committee of the Society of Alumni, which urged that action in filling the projected permanent chairmanship should be suspended "in view of the overwhelming importance of the matter, and of the uncertainty of the power, under the present law, to create such an executive head." The ensuing discussion clearly demonstrated that the only objection which could be brought against Colonel Miles was that his experience as the head-master of an academy, however excellent, was perhaps insufficient to fit him for the novel and difficult duties of the Presidency. It was debatable whether even this objection had not been suggested partly by opposition to that office, however experienced and distinguished the incumbent might be.

After lending an attentive ear to the discussion which took place at the meeting on that day, the 18th, the Board first passed an unanimous resolution highly commendatory of Colonel Miles, and then decided that, instead of filling the permanent chairmanship at once, it would be advisable to appoint a committee of three to urge upon the General Assembly the expediency of permitting the Visitors to create the office of executive head. The same committee were instructed to report as to the title to be borne by the incumbent, and the scope of his powers. They were also enjoined to obtain the views of the great body of the alumni. The elaborate plan drafted by the Faculty for the division of powers between their own body and a President seems

to have been passed over in silence, under the influence, perhaps, of the reason mentioned by Professor Thornton; namely, that such a division would be likely to lead to friction and confusion. Receiving attention quite as scant was a resolution passed by a group of alumni, which would have barred from the office of President any one who was a member of the Board of Visitors, or had been a member within an interval of four years.

The Visitors did not reassemble until April 28 of the ensuing year (1903), by which time an enabling act had been passed by the General Assembly; they then adopted a resolution calling for the election of a President at the next meeting of the Board, which was to be held on June 13. The chairmanship was to be abolished so soon as a President was chosen. When June 13 arrived, the election was postponed until July 28, and on that date, it was postponed for the second time. The Board, however, had now reached the conclusion that however high the undoubted qualifications of Colonel Miles in experience, ability, and character might be, it would be unwise to elect any one to the office of President unless he was shown to be practically the unanimous choice of Visitors, Faculty, and alumni combined; and this seems to have been the opinion of the citizens of the State at large as reflected in the press.

VII. *Election of President*

However regrettable may have been the publicity which had been aroused by the incident we have just related, it is indisputable that it had the beneficial result of directing a closer scrutiny to the practical advantages of establishing the office of President. "It stirred things up," remarked the editors of the *College Topics*, "set the Board and alumni to thinking, and made them

see plainly our great need of an executive head,—a real one and a fit one,—and made them immediately active in what otherwise might have been postponed indefinitely.”

The Faculty itself perceived more clearly than ever that the welfare of the University would be promoted by an alteration in the general character of the administration; but they still very stoutly denied that this change was called for by the presumption that the institution was drying up in its financial resources. “Why was a President needed?” asked Professor James M. Page. “Not because of some alarming decadent or atrophied condition which had disclosed itself in the University in late years. On the contrary, the opinion of the Faculty, and, I suppose, to some extent, that of the Visitors,—that this University needs a President,—was based, in large measure, upon the fact that the administrative affairs of the institution have grown both in scope and complexity within the last decade and a half. The form of government practicable when the constitution was younger, had proved too cumbersome to meet the altered conditions. The University has not been the victim of arrested development, for, as a matter of fact, the number of students matriculated has more than doubled within the last fifteen years. Financial conditions have been improving and are better today than ever before.”

After the failure of the Board of Visitors in June, 1903, to elect Colonel Miles to the newly authorized office of President, that body deferred action for another twelve months. In the meanwhile, several persons of high qualifications for the post were considered,—among whom were Bishop Collins Denny, Professor W. M. Lile, Professor James M. Page, John

H. McBryde, and Charles W. Dabney. Sixteen of the twenty-five members of the Faculty attached their signatures to a paper advocating the election of Professor Francis P. Venable, of the University of North Carolina. But on June 14, 1904, the Board, by a unanimous vote chose as the first President of the University of Virginia, Edwin Anderson Alderman, at that time President of Tulane University, in New Orleans. He accepted, and in September, began to discharge the duties of his new office. There had preceded him seventeen incumbents of the chairmanship of the Faculty, with an average length of service of five years.

VIII. *The Inauguration*

The formal inauguration did not occur until April 13, 1905. The day was marked by beautiful weather, which brought out in perfection all the vernal charm of the Piedmont region. The cloudless sky seemed to have stolen its tint from the hue of the noble chain of mountains that leaned against the western horizon. The grass that carpeted the Lawn was as green as the turf of some English dell or Kentuckian pasture; the trees springing up before the two long lines of dormitories, on either side, were just putting forth their first red buds; the white surfaces of the pillars and arches of the arcades reflected the slightly misty sunlight that fell over the scene; while the fronts of the pavilions, with their white columns and entablatures, shone through the network of branches which shaded their porches. At the head of the vista rose the imposing Rotunda, commanding the entire academic village, like some splendid temple of the classical age, and at the foot towered, in the distance, the range of the Southwest Mountains,

clothed to the top with forest, and standing boldly against the broad background of sky.

If perfect harmony, down to the minutest detail, had been sought for the academic procession, which, on that day, formed in front of the south steps of the Rotunda, the figures of the numerous professors, college presidents, and public men, taking part in it, should have been wrapped in the togas of the ancient Romans, for were they not to start from the Pantheon? and in their stately progress to Cabell Hall, were they not to pass the Diocletian Baths, the Temple of Fortuna Virilis, and the Theatre of Marcellus? But the spirit of modernity was too strong for mere consistency, and in the place of the loose robes of the Romans, all of one color and of one piece, the figures of those participants who could boast the possession of a degree were covered with their scholastic gowns adorned with hoods dyed scarlet, blue, yellow, gold, maroon or purple.

In the advance down the terraced Lawn, first came the State officials, among whom was to be observed the attorney-general, Major William A. Anderson, who had been a student at the University during the war and had been crippled for life on one of the great battle-fields. In this group also were to be seen the lieutenant-governor, and the presiding justice of the Court of Appeals, the librarian of Congress, and the head of the Federal Bureau of Agriculture. Next came the members of the State Legislature and of Congress; after them, the superintendents of city and county schools, followed by the teachers in the public and private schools. Then came the representatives of educational and scientific societies. In this group was noticed Moncure D. Conway, who, before the War of Secession, had left Virginia

to support the cause of Abolition, while not far from him walked Randolph H. McKim, a gallant soldier in the Confederate armies. Near at hand was Samuel Spencer, who had demonstrated that the South could beget great men of affairs as well as great orators and great statesmen; and not far off was Archibald C. Coolidge, of Boston, who was sprung from the blood of the Founder. Next followed the representatives of all the Universities of the North and South and West, robed in the doctor's gown and hood, and presenting, in their figures, all the colors of the rainbow. The representatives of Harvard and the College of William and Mary, the two oldest institutions of higher learning in the United States, marched at their head. The seventh division was formed by the members of the Faculty of the University of Virginia, and the eighth, of the Board of Visitors, the officers of the University, and the trustees of the Miller School. The last division numbered in its ranks the speaker of the day, the Governor of the State, the Rector of the University, and the new President.

The galleries of Cabell Hall were packed with students; and as the long procession slowly entered the great apartment, the young men burst out with their college song sung to the moving tune of *Auld Lang Syne*. The only touch of color employed was in the use of the United States and Virginian flags. The picture that adorned the wall back of the platform, the *School of Athens*, was set off with an American flag on either side; the portrait of Jefferson was similarly decorated, and so was the bust of Lafayette; while the flag of Virginia,—with its picture of Liberty trampling the tyrant under foot,—was suspended above the speakers.

The Board of Visitors, the Faculty, the State, the

alumni, the institutions of learning,— North, and West, and South,—were all represented in the speeches that followed. The ceremony ended with the inaugural address of President Alderman.

IX. *Antecedents of the New President*

In appraising the work of an executive head, whether of a nation or of a university, it is essential that we should know something about the influences which have qualified him to perform successfully the duties of the position that he occupies. This is especially imperative in the case of the president of an institution of learning, which, like the University of Virginia in 1904-05, had passed at one leap from the divided administrative system approved by Jefferson to a system in which the power was, in no small part, concentrated in the hands of a single individual. We shall, in a later chapter, describe the scope of the very liberal functions, which by the action of the Board of Visitors, were attached to the newly created office. Suffice it to say here that these functions gave the first President so much authority that a study of the circumstances of his previous life becomes necessary if we are to obtain a correct impression of the history of the University while under his supervision.

The opinions which an executive has expressed form an important key to an understanding of his general policy if his power has been commensurate with his responsibilities. It is true, that, no matter how great this power may be, a college president is compelled to be considerate of the views of his board of trustees, and, in a less degree, also, of those of his faculty; but if he is a man of vigorous character and clear convictions, — and without these traits it is hardly likely that he

would have been elected to his office,—he is certain to stamp the seal of his personality upon the contemporary tendencies of the institution which he superintends. We shall touch only on those aspects of the new President's previous career which appear to us to bear most directly upon the history of his administration, so far as it has yet progressed.

In a suggestive address by a distinguished Carolinian teacher, delivered prior to the Presidency, before the General Alumni Association of the University of Virginia, he, with that candor which is always permissible in a friend, although not always relished in proportion to its disinterested sincerity, pointed out what he considered to be the three worst deficiencies of the alma mater of the men to whom he was then speaking. These deficiencies, he said, were an absence of the democratic spirit; a lack of organization; and an aloofness from the masses of people. This statement, as a whole, was exaggerated, but admitting its correctness in some details, what had there been in the career of the new President which offered a fair assurance that he would be able to furnish the remedy?

In the first place, he was a native of North Carolina. Of all the commonwealths of the South, even during the existence of slavery, that State possessed the most democratic framework of society. The prevalence of a general social equality was more perceptible in it than in any Southern State of equal population. It possessed no city of importance, like Richmond, Charleston, Savannah, or New Orleans, to set the social pace; nor was there sufficient inequality in material fortune among its inhabitants to produce such a distinct stratification as was to be seen, for instance, in South Carolina and Virginia. Its society, as a whole, was one of great

simplicity; and while marked by a wholesome and sturdy virtue of its own, was only able here and there to pretend to a share of the distinction which could be rightly claimed for the social life of its two most famous neighbors. There were many names in the history of the liberty-loving people of North Carolina which were celebrated for talent and public service, but there were not so many which enjoyed a general prestige for social reasons only.

It was altogether logical that the soil of a State, which even the presence of the slave could not make aristocratic throughout by encouraging everywhere a sharp division into classes, should have been nourishing to the public school long before it had taken root elsewhere in the South. Education at the public expense had been pushed further in North Carolina, previous to 1860, than in any other of the Southern communities. And why? Because that commonwealth possessed a social organization, which, in its democratic spirit, resembled the social organizations of the North and West,—regions that had always supported a public school system. In 1854, ninety-five thousand of the children of this State,—one-half of the population whose years ranged between five and twenty,—were enrolled in local schools that depended upon the public purse alone for their maintenance. By 1861, the number of pupils in these schools had increased to one hundred and fifty thousand; nor did this juvenile host shrink in size in the course of the war.

As early as 1839, it had been enacted by the General Assembly of North Carolina, that, for every twenty dollars obtained by local taxation for education, forty should be appropriated for the same purpose out of the State Literary Fund. Calvin H. Wiley was elected

State Superintendent of Public Instruction in 1852; and he continued to fill the post until 1865, when he was thrown out by an alien administration. In consequence of the dissipation of the school fund, in the Reconstruction era, through the failure of banks and official robberies, and in consequence also of the reduction in every branch of taxation after the restoration of good government, the work of the public schools was more limited in scope, and less effective in quality, in 1880, than it had been in 1860, two decades earlier; but the attitude of the community towards the system had undergone no real change.

President Alderman was born too late to have any personal knowledge of the conditions which prevailed in his native State before the abolition of slavery; but he grew up in an atmosphere in which the old community spirit had been confirmed, and the old democratic spirit intensified, by the universal impoverishment which followed the war. The public school system remained, though temporarily clipped in wing. The great tradition handed down by Calvin H. Wiley had not lost its hold upon the imagination of that stout-hearted people, elevated, not degraded, invigorated, not enfeebled, by all the sacrifices which they had made for their cause.

The spirit which that people had cherished long before the war, now, under the pressure of new conditions, began to spread all over the Southern States. The lofty example set by Lee at Lexington, and the unwearied labors of Ruffner, and Sears, and Curry, and their disciples in less conspicuous spheres, gradually created the conviction throughout that region that it was only through a general system of public instruction that its complete regeneration in every province of activity could be brought about. In this atmosphere of unself-

ish service, there appeared a new type of publicist never before known in the South,—the educational statesman, the man who weighed the importance of education, not from a pedagogic point of view alone, but principally from the broader point of view of practical and constructive citizenship. Talents, which formerly would have been directed to the defence of the institution of slavery, or to assaults upon the tariff, were now nobly content to limit their exercise to the advocacy of the public school.

The most persuasive, eloquent, and zealous spokesman of the new principle was Curry, a man who deserves to have more statues erected to his memory than any statesman associated with the history of the Southern States in recent times. What was the aim of this man in the prosecution of his invaluable work? "It was," said a distinguished disciple, "to democratize the point of view of an aristocratic society; to revolutionize its impulses and aspirations; to stimulate the habit of community effort for public ends; to enrich the concept of civic virtue; to exemplify the ideal of social service to young men; and to set the public school in its proper correlation to all other educational agencies in front of the public mind as the chief concern of constructive statesmanship."

The example set by Curry before all eyes, and the principles which he advocated, with the passion of a great preacher and the wisdom of a practical statesman, inflamed the imaginations and appealed to the sense of action of many promising young men, who soon came to think with him that here was to be found the most effective means of rebuilding the South materially and of restoring its former political influence. Among these young men was Edwin A. Alderman. "The first

vote that I ever cast," said he in a public address in 1902, "was for the public school; the first dollar that I ever earned was in the public school; and no honor has ever come into my life, no joy has entered my soul, comparable to the annexing of my life, twenty years ago, to this high service."

During his studentship at Chapel Hill, he had displayed the special abilities which, under the former order, would have fitted him for a successful political career, and under the new, for the less brilliant honors of the profession of law or theology; but instead of following the gleam which led straight to political, legal, or ecclesiastical distinction, he turned away to devote his powers, native and acquired, to the more prosaic and much less lucrative calling of a teacher. Thus he started upon a career which carried him step by step from the superintendency of the public schools of Goldsboro, in his native State, to the Presidency of the University of Virginia. In travelling the highway of that long interval, he was to pass a succession of milestones which were to indicate the stages of his progress in his profession,—the chair of History in the State Normal and Industrial College at Greensboro, the chair of History and Philosophy of Education at Chapel Hill, the Presidency of the University of North Carolina, and the Presidency of Tulane University, in New Orleans.

It was in 1883 that young Alderman heard for the first time an address by Dr. Curry. The impression of that occasion confirmed him in the view, which he, as an earnest teacher in the public schools, already took of the moral aspects of his vocation. "A thriving North Carolina town," he says, "was proposing to tax itself for adequate school facilities. This was not then an everyday occurrence in North Carolina. Curry stood

before them and plead with passion and power for the children of the community. I remember how he seized a little child impulsively, and with dramatic instinct, placed his hand upon his curly head and pictured to the touched and silent throng the meaning of a little child to human society. It was the first time I had heard a man of such power spend himself so passionately in such a cause. I had seen and heard men speak in that way about personal religion, and heaven, and hell, and struggles and wrongs long past, but never before about children. It seemed to me, and all young men who heard him, that here was a vital thing to work for,—here, indeed, a cause to which a man might nobly attach himself, feeling sure that, though he himself might fail, the cause would go proudly marching on. ”

In 1889, when President Alderman was only twenty-eight years old, and when barely seven had passed since his departure from college, there occurred an episode in his life which was colored with something of the ardor that burns in the breast of the true crusader. He and Charles Duncan McIver, that sturdy offspring of the transplanted stock of the Highland glens, were appointed conductors of institutes for their native State. These two young men, who were especially picked out because of their experience, ability, zeal, and energy, were instructed to visit every part of that highly diversified region, in order to demonstrate to its people, in a general way, (1) the need and duty of the commonwealth to give an education to every child, whatever his class or color, within her borders; and (2) the positive right which each of those children possessed to receive an education at public expense. It was planned that an institute should be held in every county. Through the institute, the mass of inhabitants were to learn precisely

what the public school system meant; why it was set up; how its standards could be raised; how its usefulness in every way could be improved. In their turn, the teachers working under this system were to be taught the best methods of pedagogy; the true aims for members of their profession; how each separate school should be organized; and how the pupils should be housed and their health protected.

In his sympathetic sketch of his associate, President Alderman says, " I recall commencement night at Chapel Hill in the year 1889. We were to start out on a new and untried experiment in North Carolina and the South, — a deliberate effort by new campaign methods to create and mould public opinion on the question of popular education, involving taxation for the benefit of others. I remember that we talked about our plans and purposes and difficulties until the cocks began to crow. We talked on until the sun rose. I am inclined to think it about the best night I have ever spent, for an intelligent and unselfish idea held our youth under its spell, and bound us for life to a service which was not the service of self. "

Having apportioned the territory of the State between them, they then, with words of mutual encouragement, separated, like two young missionaries to whom had been assigned respectively a spiritual task in a different region; and during three years, without a single halt in the prosecution of their adventure, each, in his own set of counties, carried forward aloft the new banner of civic salvation through popular education. The ground traversed by young Alderman spread from the sea to the mountains. In one stage of his crusade, he was only able to advance from point to point by the use

of a boat, while behind him spread away to Hatteras, looming on the horizon, the glittering surface of the Sounds. In another stage, he passed along in sight of the highest peaks of the Appalachians, wreathed in the clouds of morning or afternoon. In the eastern counties, shut off by salt water from railways, and possessing few roads, a deadly lethargy seemed, at that time, to have palled the minds of the illiterate and ignorant but kind-hearted and good-natured inhabitants. No effective means of mental improvement were then in reach of those isolated men, women, and children.

The young conductor lingered a week in each county employing every moment of his time in conferring with schoolteachers and trustees, and addressing the people at large. Like a Methodist minister riding his circuit, he spoke to his audiences in granaries, in churches, in town-halls, in ware-houses. Each occasion, in its social aspects, recalled something of the spirit of the camp-meeting and the country fair. The rush of yelping dogs to the door when aroused by some sound without, and the wailing of sick babies or sleepy children in the laps of mothers seated on the benches, broke the patness of many amusing anecdotes, and the flow of many eloquent periods, from the lips of the man on the platform. But in spite of these crude interruptions, he continued to talk to them in a strain of familiar conversation, which, notwithstanding the by-play of humor to ease the attention, never lost sight of the main thesis; namely, that the free school was the ark of the covenant, and that each community must consent to support it by the taxation of its own citizens. In the course of his entire tour, he conducted thirty institutes; travelled nearly twenty-seven hundred miles by rail and five hundred by carriage; and

addressed thirteen hundred and thirty-five teachers, thus reaching indirectly from seventy-five thousand to one hundred thousand children.

By his association with city schools as teacher and superintendent, and by his incumbency of an important chair in the State normal and industrial college, Professor Alderman had come to comprehend the educational wants of the large or urban communities; and by his swing around the circle of the Carolina counties, he had been able to get an equally clear insight into the needs of the small or rural communities. There was no man of his age in the South whose practical knowledge of the public school system, founded upon actual observation at the closest quarters, was superior in fullness or sympathy to his own. His convictions were summed up in his own utterance: "Every child has the same right to be educated as he has to be free; and the one right is as sacred as the other."

The next step forward was his appointment to the professorship of History and Philosophy of Education, in the University of North Carolina; and the next, his election to the Presidency of that old and honored seat of learning. This was a State institution, and the capstone of the public school system of the commonwealth. He soon perceived that the spirit of its students had drifted from the aspirations which had been popular during his own undergraduate years; at that time, the most talented looked forward to law, pedagogy, or politics, as the pursuit surest to furnish an opportunity to gratify their ambition; now all the solid financial enchantments of an industrial democracy had begun to whisper to them from the walls of the lecture-rooms.

The new President, in his inaugural address, struck a chord upon which he was to continue to lay an emphatic

finger throughout his subsequent career. "What sort of a university are we going to make here?" he asked. "Shall it be a good, honest, disciplinary college, seeking no new truth, dealing with letters, and records, and traditions, and arts? Or shall it become a great modern force, doing that also, but alert to all social needs, from the problems of suffrage to the problems of the transfusion of electrical forces? There can be no limit set to the ideal of a State university. It must be a source of power to all below it, or fail miserably. Everything may be justly brought in it necessary to citizenship, livelihood, and character, in the twentieth century. After isolation, we are entering into membership in the modern world. Not only is there needed the directing brain and the cunning hand, the factory and the blast furnace, but also the man who has the right public spirit, and the force to make himself felt; the thinking man who sees that civic unity and community effort must replace raw individualism, and the disunion and rage of section, party, and sect. This is the mighty social engine to create that benign force."

In the course of his official oversight of this famous university, President Alderman obtained as accurate a knowledge of the working of a great State seat of learning as he had already acquired of the working of the humblest primary, and the most advanced secondary, school. Here too he was in a position to exhibit administrative capacity in a large way. By the influence of his policy, the faculty and students were welded into a harmonious unity; the number of matriculates enrolled increased; the volume of income rose; new buildings were added to the original group; and a higher appreciation of the value of the institution was spread abroad through the commonwealth.

From Chapel Hill, he was translated to Tulane University, a seat of learning in which were combined the characteristics of a State organization and a private foundation. The original college had merged its entity into a new institution created by the endowments of four individuals, the chief of whom was Paul Tulane, — in whose honor, it had been named the "Tulane University of Louisiana." It was really a union of colleges, — the college of arts and sciences, the college of technology, the Sophie Newcomb Memorial Woman's College, and the schools of pedagogy, law, and medicine. President Alderman's administration here was marked by the same success which had given distinction to his administration at Chapel Hill. As a member of the Southern Educational Board, he had an additional opportunity of studying and weighing all the varied influences which were either retarding or advancing the welfare of the Southern States in every department of their vital interests. In cooperation with McIver, he had directed the educational activities of that Board; and after McIver's death, he had become the chairman of its campaigns and its principal agent. In 1906, he was chosen a member of the General Education Board.

X. Scholastic Convictions of the New President

From the previous statement of facts, it is obvious that the new president had enjoyed an exceptional experience, — whether in extent or variety, — in preparation for the office which, in 1904, he was called upon to fill at the University of Virginia. To sum up: he had been educated at one of the oldest and most respected seats of learning in the South; as a public school-teacher, a public school superintendent, a conductor of institutes, and a professor in a normal and industrial college, he had had an opportunity to weigh the power of the public

school system as an instrument for improving the condition of the people at large; as President of the University of North Carolina, he had been in a position to decide what was the right policy which a State university should pursue, if it was to fulfill its duty to the community as a whole; as President of Tulane University, he had been able to study the special influences for good in many directions which a great institution of culture, resting upon private endowment, could create and spread abroad. By virtue of these combined experiences, rising from the lowest to the highest rung of the scholastic ladder, the new executive head of the University of Virginia, — gifted originally by nature with the necessary basic qualities, — had learned to administer large affairs with good judgment; to take the lead of faculties and students with tactful skill; and in his representative capacity, to appear before the world in an attitude of grace and dignity. And to crown these advantages, he had, as a member of the great educational boards, which had scattered, with liberal hand, their benefactions throughout the South, come to know, with thoroughness, the conditions which prevailed in all parts of that region; the difficulties which had to be surmounted by its people; and the spirit in which the solution of their problems had to be approached by themselves and by their alien friends.

The educational convictions of a Southerner who has enjoyed such comprehensive opportunities as these to understand the needs of his own section, are always important; but they assume a special significance, in their relation to the University of Virginia, when they are the convictions of a man who occupies the office of its presidency, with the possession of very great personal power in every province of its administration.

The impression which had prevailed in that institu-

tion previous to 1865, and for many years afterwards, was that the only functions of a university were to breed or nourish gentlemen and to produce scholars, — the first function preponderating in value over the second. The most consistent motto which the University of Virginia could, in those times, have adopted was to be found in the familiar stanza of Thackeray beginning "Who misses, or who wins the prize,"¹ supplemented by other lines proclaiming the power of knowledge. The old argument was that, if the instincts of the gentleman and the scholar could be brought to flower in the student, the impulses of a useful citizen would inevitably accompany the development. If the student was chivalrous in feeling, unselfish in motive, and gentle in conduct, a lover of good literature, and the possessor of a cultivated intellect, it was confidently anticipated that he would later on perform with fidelity his duty to himself, to his family, to his neighborhood, to his State, to his country.

The University of Virginia made no pretension to serving the community directly, but it did claim that it served the community indirectly by tacitly and persistently inculcating in the individual student the importance of setting an upright and stimulating example, and by so training him in mind and morals, within its precincts, that he did set that example in after-life. It reached out to every citizen, high or low, only through its graduates. It did not assert that it was a lighthouse in itself, but it did endeavor to convert each graduate into a guiding torch for his own community. Every community was an aggregation of individuals. Develop the individual under the arcade, in the dormitory, and in the class-room, and he in turn, would, with the cooperation of his former fellow-students, develop the community. It has

¹ See page 224, volume IV, for the whole of the stanza.

been reserved for a later age to declare that there was an aristocratic bent in this attitude. If the usefulness of a tree is to be judged by its fruit, then those in sympathy with that spirit have only to point to the types of men who left the halls of the University at the time that this spirit was in the full flush of its vitality.

As we have seen, the economic changes set in motion in the Southern States by the fall of the Confederacy had come to be plainly perceptible by 1904. One of the most conspicuous results of these changes, as we have already mentioned, was the rise of the community spirit. The existence of this new spirit had been clearly discerned by the authorities of the University of Virginia long before that year; and they had endeavored to adapt the administration of the institution to it without destroying that original policy upon which we have just been dwelling. They had altered the curriculum of the old degree of master of arts simply because this degree, as it then was, tended to disassociate the University from the current life of the State, by narrowing its capacity for practical usefulness, and by restricting its principal function to serving as a nursery for specialists and technical scholars. They had been successful in creating a genuine relation between the University and the teachers by free tuition and the summer institutes; and between the public school pupils and the University undergraduate courses by the establishment of scholarships. The long agitation for the erection of the Presidency had a part of its origin in this desire to get in closer touch with the new community spirit, which called so imperatively for the spirit of efficiency while insisting upon the spirit of democracy. Before the new office was introduced, it was perceived that the University of Virginia could not disregard the requirements of the new era if it was to

survive,—it must reorganize its administration; it must re-coordinate its studies; it must alter its outlook, if it was to retain the place which it had so long held with so much distinction.

How far was the man who was elected President in sympathy with this new community spirit, which all thoughtful alumni of the University, however wedded to the past and its splendid traditions of individualism, knew had to be reckoned with and obeyed? His repeated utterances, recorded through a long series of years, leave no room for doubt as to what he looked upon as the true function of the universities of the modern South; and as to what he considered to be their proper relation with all the phases of the waxing industrial democracy of that far-spreading region.

“Education,” he said in his inaugural address at Tulane, “exists to make men. The public schools constitute one step in that process, the secondary schools, another, colleges still another. If we let the grass grow between us and the doors of the public school, that neglect will spell ruin to us. The University must keep its eyes on the people.” Again, in an address before the National Educational Association, delivered not long afterwards, he said, “Our universities must interest themselves in the things which interest the people, no matter how homely or prosaic,—the negro’s cabin, the factory child, the village library, the prices current, the home, the field, the shop.” “The University,” he remarked in his inaugural address in 1905, “is an agent of society as completely public as the State capitol. Its glory is service to society. Its strength is sustenance by society. We who administer, govern, teach, are the servants of the people. The university must reach out into every hamlet, and touch hopefully every citizen, so that

the home, the village, the field, the shop, may see the university for what it is: an intellectual lighthouse, not alone for the few who trim its wicks and fill its lamps, but for all the uncharted craft adrift upon the sea."

"No cry for guidance, in its complex development," he declared in an article printed in the *South Atlantic Quarterly* in 1906, "should come up out of an American State which is not met with an immediate answer by its State university. Its duty is not alone to provide teachers, lawyers, doctors, and clean-hearted and clear-minded men,—it is that, of course,—but to provide as well experts in every phase of expansion in a complex time: in engineering, in commerce, in agriculture, in the domestic arts, in public health, in public transportation and public welfare generally." In a letter to the alumni during the session of 1909-10, he wrote, "The University should see beyond its walls the needs of an advancing civilization, and have both impulse and power to carry help to a free society, ever reaching out to higher levels. If they need to know how better to till the soil,—out of which all wealth must come,—and to carry forward an orderly economic life; if their thought is upon the health and physical well-being of community life; if they desire to build their schools and local institutions with wisdom and farsightedness; if they have need of the knowledge which will enable them to put beauty and dignity and spiritual value into their homes and lives,—their university should not fail them in these just desires, but should be an ever present stimulus to their aspirations, and a tower of strength in elevating the standards of living. As the servants of the commonwealth, the scholars and teachers of the university are at the call of the people."

"The ultimate mission of the State University in

America," he wrote in 1912, "will be to supply the brains, not only to the fortunate few who can repair to its walls, but to all the people, who constitute the life of the State." And in an address delivered during the session of 1911-12, he said that "the supreme duty of this generation in educational progress was to rise above institutional exclusiveness, and behold primary schools, colleges, technical schools, professional schools, and university, working together as one great beneficial agency, feeding, stimulating, guiding, and understanding, and supplementing each other."

"The university," said he in an address at Chapel Hill, in 1915, "may justly take its place as that coordinate branch of democratic government out of which may be drawn a body of experts and social-minded men, ever ready to undertake, to analyze, and understand, and sympathize, with the State in the making; who can organize the education of its children, foster economic organization in its moral life, and vitalize and socialize the isolation of its country life; who can improve its agriculture and animal husbandry, and aid in organizing its public revenues and give direction to its thought." "More and more," he affirmed in a report to the Board of Visitors, in the course of the same year, "the university is seeking to emphasize the duty of the university to care for the State. The old idea was for the State to care for the university." And in the *Alumni News* for 1915, he declared that "the primary duty of a university was undoubtedly to discover truth, to set standards, and to train men within its walls. Its secondary duty was to carry its knowledge to the whole life of the State and region which it serves. The first prepares for leadership; the second guarantees wise and sympathetic citizenship."

"No university," he remarked on another occasion, "will long endure which is not in fairly close touch with the community to whose needs it must minister. The university's chief task is first to teach its own students faithfully and well, not primarily for their sakes as individuals, but as a means of State and national enrichment. It must mould the sources of public opinion by supplying technical evidence, just standards, and varied scholarship, to the State's peculiar problems of business, health, education, religion, and agriculture. University and State must work together in a partnership of mutual obligation. The university must be given a chance to realize its ideals and demonstrate its energy, and the State must then demand of it inspiration and guidance." And again he affirmed that a university "is a great cooperative public corporation in harmony with the growth of modern activities, uniting on almost equal terms with the State in contribution to the material, social, and moral welfare of all the people without, as well as within, its walls. Universities have drawn closer to the people, not to popularize themselves cheaply, but to enrich and strengthen the lives of the people. The people are asking of every institution whether it be serviceable or no, and demanding that its efficiency express itself in service to the people as a whole."

"If a State is wise and farseeing," he remarked as late as 1917, "it will demand of such accumulations of human energy and scientific material a service to the whole commonwealth which will cause a deeper intelligence to filter throughout the State; and which will bring creative helpfulness to communities as well as to individuals. Those who govern the State, whenever they undertake large matters based on scientific needs affecting the public good, should immediately ask them-

selves: what sciences can be got, to promote their ends, from their institutions of higher learning; and these should be commandeered (to use a military term) to help the State rather than be put in the position of thrusting themselves into the service of the people, whom they were brought into existence to serve."

The preceding quotations from the addresses of President Alderman, which might be greatly multiplied, disclose the convictions which he has always held as to the proper functions of a modern seat of learning. We have seen what ideals entered into the administration of the University of Virginia before the influences of the present conditions in the South had begun fully to reveal themselves. The additional ideals of the same institution, as created by these new conditions, and stimulated by the policy of its executive, in harmony with the trend of the age, are that the University is not simply a more or less secluded nursery for the production of scholars and gentlemen, but that it is also a great workshop to which the whole community can turn for practical instruction and leadership; that it is a lighthouse, which casts penetrating rays along the whole coast of the State's multitudinous and complicated interests, for the profit of every citizen.

The most radical exemplar of this general conception of what a university should do for the community is, of course, the University of Wisconsin, which has been described as a bureau of experts attached to the State government for the benefit of the State,—a general information office, ready to supply all persons with scientific and technical knowledge for use in their daily life. It possesses numerous fully equipped laboratories for research, and a circle of professors thoroughly trained to employ these laboratories to the utmost advantage.

In consequence, that institution can rightly boast that, annually, it has added many millions of dollars to the incomes of the people of its commonwealth.

We will anticipate our account of the different schools during the Ninth Period, 1904-1919, by pointing out briefly, at this stage, the community directions which the new university spirit has, under President Alderman's general guidance, so far taken. First, there has been established a geological department, which is investigating, with ever increasing thoroughness, the geological formations and mineral deposits of the State. Second, there has been founded a department of forestry, designed both to utilize and to preserve the State's resources in this important province. Third, there has been erected a large and well-equipped addition to the hospital for ministering to the sick, and for researches in the field of public health. Fourth, a school of education has been created to strengthen the general aims of the public school system; and to this a department has now been added for the training of teachers, and for the improvement of university instruction in all its branches. Fifth, university extension has been adopted, with the view of carrying university information and nurture to every hearth. Sixth, the Summer School of Methods has been perfected; and, seventh, a School of Finance and Commerce has been established, with a large endowment to support it.

Professors of the University of Virginia have served with ability on different Public Commissions, such as the Educational, the State Geological, the State Tax, the State Highway, the Federal Tariff, and also on the State Board of Education and the numerous State cooperative leagues. In addition, the institution has taken, through its School of Secondary Education, an important part in

improving the sanitary condition of the public schools; and through its school of hygiene, it has increased the value of the public health inspection. Furthermore, it has entered the religious life of the State by the zealous and efficient labors of its Young Men's Christian Association; it has encouraged the work of the State Archaeological Society; it has assisted the debating societies of the high schools; and by every means in its power, has fostered and encouraged the various bodies organized for civic betterment.

XI. *Powers of the Presidential Office*

What were the powers bestowed on the new executive office by the Board of Visitors? The new President occupied the chair for the first time at a called meeting of the Faculty on September 14, 1904; and on the following day, the Visitors assembled and clearly defined the scope of his authority in the administration of the University's affairs.

First, he was to serve as the medium of communication between the Board and the Faculty, and also between the Board and the subordinate officers. The object of this provision was to remove the awkwardness so often created, during the existence of the chairmanship, by the greater loyalty which the incumbent of that position, not unnaturally, exhibited towards the Faculty and officers than towards the Board. It was expected that the President, being practically independent of Faculty and officers, would be able to fulfill these liaison duties with perfect impartiality.

Second, the President was to be responsible for the discipline of the students. This regulation was in sharp contravention of the recommendation of the Faculty, who, as already pointed out, had claimed that their

body, as a whole, was in a better position to superintend the internal affairs of the institution than the President; and that the sole right to supervise these affairs was essential to the preservation of their influence with the students. The reasons that led the Board to deny this claim were: (1) that, so long as there was a duality of authority, there would be constant danger of a conflict between the President and the Faculty, with the undignified, and, in the public view, damaging, incidents certain to follow; and (2) that, unless the primary authority was concentrated in the office of President, he could not justly be held responsible for the proper government of the University. This did not signify the complete elimination of the Faculty as a part of the administrative machinery. On the contrary, as we shall see, the members of that body, as members of the several administrative committees, possessed and exercised great influence in the general direction of the University's internal affairs.

Third, while the President was required to overlook these internal affairs only in a general way, he was nevertheless expected to keep a very vigilant eye upon the working of all the academic and professional departments. This latter regulation, if it did not destroy the independence of the schools as established by Jefferson, materially curtailed it. The last word in the guidance of these schools now lay with the President, and not with the respective professors. The purpose of the change was to bring about a closer coordination between all the schools by subjecting them to the continuous supervision of one responsible person. It was desirable, too, that the line between the college department, — the undergraduate and the graduate courses, — should be more sharply drawn; and that the college

courses should be adjusted more accurately to the courses of the public high schools. All this could be more satisfactorily effected under the new system.

Fourth, the President was to represent the University on every public occasion; and also to take the chair at meetings of the General Faculty, or the minor faculties,—bodies whose powers and duties he was authorized to determine.

Fifth, he possessed the right to recommend to the Board the names of such persons as seemed to him to be properly equipped to fill vacancies on the teaching or administrative staff. Under the operation of the old rule, the testimonials of the several candidates were submitted directly to the Board, who, after examining them, announced their decision in favor of one of the candidates upon the strength of his superior claim to personal and scholastic consideration. Under the practical working of the new rule, the function of the Visitors resembled,—partially at least,—the function of the United States Senate in passing upon a nomination: if the nomination was disapproved of, it could be rejected, without the necessity of their substituting another in its place. This was looked upon as a sufficient device to bar all really objectionable selections by the executive head; but the rule still left the choice to the disinterested or biased judgment of the man who happened to be filling the Presidential office. The reputation of the University depended primarily upon the learning, character, and personal impressiveness of the members of the Faculty, and a failure to rise to the right level in any of these particulars was, perhaps, less apt to occur when the Board relied upon their collective judgment than when they trusted to the fallible judgment of one man, however conscientious and faithful he might be. But the

argument of the Board was that, if the President was to be held responsible for the successful administration of the University's affairs, he should be permitted to exercise the practically exclusive right to recommend the appointment of all who were to serve under him, in whatever capacity.

The additional functions conferred on the President, which tended to increase the efficiency of his office, may be grouped as follows: he was to be a member of the Board of Visitors,—without the right to vote, however, and he was always to serve as the chairman of the executive committee of that body; he was empowered to determine and define the duties of the students who had been awarded scholarships and fellowships; he was to appoint the deans of the several departments, subject to the subsequent ratification by the Board; he could compel guilty collegians to leave the precincts; and it was incumbent upon him to inform any professor who had been delinquent, of the ground of the charge against him. The latter, however, could not be turned out without the approval of the Board.

One of the President's additional tasks, as time lapsed, was to adjust the annual budget. Written reports are first obtained from the professors of the different schools, and personal conferences, if necessary for further explanation, are held with them. The substance of these reports, and the conclusions of the conferences, are summarized by the President, with the assistance of a small budget committee. Then follows the process of cutting down to make tongue and buckle meet. "One has need," it has been very truly said, "of great sympathy and comprehension of varied problems and personalities, as well as accurate fiscal sense, in order to handle such a problem."

In weighing all the powers bestowed on the new executive head of the University of Virginia in September, 1904, it is perceived that the administrative system then introduced was less democratic than the one which had been established by Jefferson; and this fact is all the more pregnant in the light of the assertion made at the time of the first President's election; namely, that the institution was too aristocratic for the spirit of the times; and that what it needed most was a democratic purge. The Presidential form of administration was, as a matter of fact, adopted, not because the Board of Visitors thought that the institution required a democratic purge, but because they thought that it required a more efficient form of government, which, in this instance, the experience of other universities had demonstrated would be a modified form of autocracy. Unity, cooperation, the community spirit,—all were called for; and these were the more easily secured, as in our modern municipalities, by a general manager or President, than by a Faculty chairman, whose powers were limited, and who was the mouthpiece of a subordinate body rather than of the University itself. "The new Presidential system," remarked Judge John W. Fishburne, in a speech delivered at an alumni meeting, "hinges on the idea that the President is a man thoroughly familiar with modern educational questions, who stands ready to guide the institution along modern lines of complete service to all the people of the State." In these comprehensive words are to be found the justification for the radical alteration, in 1904, of the University's system of government; and it would be sufficient even if there had been no other reason for making so far-reaching a change.

XII. *Rectors and Visitors*

Before examining the right possessed by the Faculty, through its administrative committees, to participate, in a modified way, in the management of the University's internal affairs, it will be pertinent to give some account of the *personnel* of the Board of Visitors, a body to which the new President was subordinate, in spite of the wide sweep of his authority. The influence of the members of that body did not spring solely from their statutory powers,—it rested largely on their just appreciation of the moral demands of their office, their native ability, their professional attainments, and their weight of experience. Beginning with 1904 and ending with January 1, 1919,—the limit of this history,—there were, during this interval, twenty-four Visitors by appointment. In addition to these, there were two who filled the office by reason of the fact that one was State Superintendent of Public Instruction, and the other, President of the University.

Of the persons enlisted in this group, three had occupied the post of rector. Charles Pinckney Jones, the first of the three in date of appointment, had been a Confederate soldier, and, during many years, served in both branches of the State legislature; but he continued to pursue his profession of law, in the meanwhile, with distinction. Altogether, he performed the duties of rector for a period of twelve years. He had already been the incumbent of the office for some time when he participated, as the representative of the Board, in the inauguration of President Alderman.

Robert Tate Irvine occupied the rectorship from 1918 to 1920, two years altogether. He was appointed

a member of the Board of Visitors in 1895 to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Basil B. Gordon, and served during five terms of four years each, omitting the interval between 1904–1908. Mr. Irvine was sprung from an ancestor who had gone from the Scottish Lowlands to North Ireland, had taken part in the desperate defense of Londonderry, and struck many resounding blows for the Protestant Cause. His more immediate forbears, accompanying the great Scotch-Irish stream of immigration in its westward flow, had halted in the Valley of Virginia. They were ardent patriots in the Revolution. One of his ancestors on his mother's side, Captain James Tate, had fallen at the head of his company at the battle of Guilford Court-House; and a shaft commemorative of his heroic death has been erected on that field.

The subject of our sketch grew to manhood in the park-like blue grass region of Kentucky; he received his principal education in that State; and afterwards graduated in the School of Law of the University of Virginia, under the tutelage of Professor Minor. Almost from the threshold of his professional career, which began in Southwest Virginia, he took a very influential part in political affairs,—represented his county in the House of Delegates; and was only defeated for election to Congress in that Republican district by a very much reduced majority for his opponent. Mr. Irvine was distinguished, not only as a lawyer and politician in the higher sense, but as a man of superior scholarship,—in 1920, he became a member of the Phi Beta Kappa academic fraternity; and he also received the degree of Doctor of Laws from Centre College in 1919. In addition, he has been an important factor in the

development of all the natural resources of the section of the State in which he resides.

In the numerous provinces of vital activity in which he has participated, whether professional, business, or political,—as a member and rector of the Board of Visitors of the University, for instance, or as a citizen of a prosperous and cultivated community,—his influence has been cast in the scale of all that was calculated to aid, to improve, and to elevate, whether the object of his consideration has been his State, his district, his town, his profession, his alma mater; and he has illustrated once more the energy, steadfastness, and integrity of that Scotch-Irish stock to which the Commonwealth of Virginia has been so deeply indebted for so many of her most useful and distinguished citizens.

If we except Joseph C. Cabell, Armistead C. Gordon filled the office of rector for a longer period than any of his predecessors; namely, thirteen years; and as rector and visitor, he occupied a seat at the table of the Board for the space of sixteen years. There have been few intervals in the history of the University which have been as pregnant with vital influences touching its welfare as these sixteen years; and throughout their successive stages, the vigilance, devotion, and helpfulness of Mr. Gordon never slackened. There was a hereditary as well as a personal reason for this attitude of loyalty on his part. He was the grandson of General William Fitzhugh Gordon, the most faithful and trusted, if not the ablest, lieutenant of Joseph C. Cabell, in the Homeric struggle for the passage of the University bill, the adoption of Charlottesville as the site of the institution, and the acquisition of State appropriations, from time to time, for its extension and support. General Gordon had, on many occasions, made important

sacrifices for the sole purpose of disconcerting those who sought to overthrow the whole of that beneficent project. His watchfulness never ceased and his firmness never relaxed throughout that long contest, in which so much factional spite, so much private malevolence, and so much provincial narrowness, were always conspiring to confuse and defeat the efforts of those who were fighting for the cause of higher education in Virginia. It was General Gordon, too, who, standing on the steps of the Rotunda facing the Lawn, welcomed the French hero, Lafayette, to the University precincts, in a speech long remembered for its grace and dignity.

It was from a patriot like this, who had sat with Jefferson and Cabell at the birth of the University, and had helped assiduously to rock its cradle in its feeble years of infancy, that Mr. Gordon was sprung. His father was named after one of the staunchest of General Gordon's lieutenants in the House of Delegates,—George Loyall, who not only employed his great talents without stint in supporting the interests of the University in that body, but afterwards served, with invaluable zeal and intelligence, as a member of the Board of Visitors. George Loyall Gordon, in the flower of his young manhood, perished for his country at Malvern Hill, in the course of the great assault which has made that ground one of the most hallowed spots in the South.

The son of this soldier-martyr,—the future rector,—passed his childhood and boyhood on the family estate, which reposed in the midst of those beautiful Piedmont hills which he afterwards pictured in one of the most moving of his poems. Around that home, as around the homes of Francis Walker Gilmer and Joseph C. Cabell, not far away, there lingered all the charming influences of Virginian social traditions and social culture, inherited

from a line of ancestry that reached back to the most famous colonial mansions standing on the banks of the James and the Rappahannock.

Mr. Gordon, like all the members of his own class in the old times, obtained his first taste of the English classics in the home library; and here too he laid the broad foundation for the literary skill which has made him so conspicuous a figure in the literature of his native State. Having passed the early stages of his tuition in one of those private schools the headmasters of which were great moral teachers as well as great scholars, he entered the University at a day when its chairs were filled by the most inspiring body of men recorded in its history, and when its atmosphere was still on fire with that spirit of patriotism and high endeavor which had been so vividly aroused by the sacrifices of the recent conflict. All the impressions of his previous life,—his loving associations with home and school, his keen appreciation of literature and scholarship, his thorough knowledge of Southern history, his profound reverence for Southern heroes, his boundless devotion to his native State and its great traditions, and his fervent sympathy with the spirit which had conferred so much distinction on her past,—all united to make him deeply responsive to the silent lessons, as well as to the formal instruction, which the University of Virginia had to give.

Throughout the years when he was consolidating his position in his profession of law, and also winning a wide reputation as a novelist, biographer, and poet, his interest in the University of Virginia continued to burn as brightly as during the days of his student life. He had chosen as his future home a town from which he could still look out on that splendid chain of mountains on which his eyes had rested unbrokenly in his youth and

early manhood. It required but a short journey to return to the scenes of his college years, and to bring himself into immediate contact with the institution which he still held in undiminished honor. The interests of a career that touched many more sides of life and thought than is usual with professional men were never offered, as they so often are, as an excuse for indifference to the call of his alma mater. There was in his attitude towards her a reflection of that devotion which, in old times, the Virginian felt for his native State,—an emotion which was the combined result of inherited instincts, social traditions, personal memories, patriotic pride, passion for the sacred soil.

The appointment of Mr. Gordon to membership in the Board of Visitors was a very proper recognition, not only of his high personal reputation, but also of this unselfish attachment to the institution, exhibited at every opportunity which had arisen in his life. Born almost in sight of the dome of the Rotunda, brought up from childhood under the influence of the principles which the University represented, educated first in its shadow, and afterwards in its lecture-halls, a distinguished writer as well as a lawyer of standing, a man of affairs as well as a citizen interested in the welfare of the community, it was to be expected that his appointment would receive the stamp of public approval, and that it would be predicted, that, in time, he would be advanced to the rectorship. In his performance of the varied, intricate, and delicate duties of the latter position, practical wisdom went hand in hand with sentiment and affection. There was not a more zealous and indefatigable member of the building committee after the Great Fire than Mr. Gordon; and to him was due the pater-nity of the resolution which first proposed the conversion

of the chairmanship of the Faculty into a virtual Presidency. The same spirit, at once reverential for the noble traditions of the University, yet keenly alert to the demands of progress as created by new conditions, was exhibited by him in every other province in which he was required to reach a decision as the rector of the institution.

At the close of his successful tenure of that responsible office, he could truly say as he did in the privacy of personal friendship: "I have loved the University of Virginia through a life, now far beyond the crest of the hill, that has, in no small measure, been dedicated to its welfare, and that is bound to it by a three-fold cord that is not lightly broken,—the cord of friendship, love, and death. There is not a stone of its noble edifices that is not dear and sacred in my regard; there is not a story of its glory and its greatness in which I do not rejoice; and it could have no agony in which I could not share."

The members of the Board of Visitors who served contemporaneously with the three rectors just named, were men of influence and prominence, either in the commonwealth at large, or in their respective communities. Of this useful body, fifteen were active practitioners at the bar, two were physicians, and two were engaged in business, either of banking or manufacturing.

Henry D. Flood had been a member of Congress during many years, and R. Walton Moore was destined to occupy a seat in the same assembly. William H. White and Eppa Hunton, Jr., were lawyers of prominence, and both were to be identified with the office of president of railroads. J. L. M. Norton and George S. Shackleford had won an excellent reputation on the bench. Daniel Harmon, Joseph W. Chinn, Goodrich Hatton, B. F. Buchanan, Robert Turnbull, A. F. Robert-

son, W. F. Oliver and C. Harding Walker were lawyers known and respected throughout the State. Several of this number had been influential members of the General Assembly. John W. Craddock had been successful in establishing one of the largest manufacturing plants in the Southern States. G. R. B. Michie had been successful as a publisher, and at the same time had served as the chief officer of a prosperous bank. W. F. Drewry and F. W. Lewis were skilful and trusted practitioners of medicine. J. Stewart Bryan, educated for the bar, was widely known for public spirit, and as the editor and proprietor of newspapers. All were men of recognized talents who had been trained in the practical school of the new conditions which had arisen in the Southern States; all were in full sympathy with the predominant tendencies of their times; and all performed with disinterested zeal and fidelity the varied and exacting duties incident to a seat on the Board.

XIII. *Administrative Committees*

After the establishment of the Presidency, the administrative offices embraced the incumbent of that position, the dean of the University and the college, the dean of the department of graduate studies, the dean of the department of law, the dean of the department of medicine, the dean of the department of engineering, the director of the summer school, the bursar, the registrar, the librarian, the superintendent of buildings and grounds, the director of the Fayerweather gymnasium, the superintendent of the hospital, the University physician, the sanitary inspector, and the alumni secretary.

We have already given some description of the powers of the President. The Faculty, taken as a whole, was known as the General Faculty. The minor faculties

were made up of subdivisions of the General Faculty according to departments. The principal administrative machinery was composed of working councils, drawn from the membership of the General Faculty, which also included the President. The most important of these was the Administrative Council, which consisted of the President and the deans of the several departments. This committee took shape only a few weeks after Dr. Alderman gathered up the reins of government, and it was his chief adviser in one of the most vital provinces falling under his supervision, for it passed upon the delinquencies of the students,—more particularly in cases of individual drunkenness, or improper conduct on the part of their different social organizations.

The second administrative body was the short-lived Academic Council. Its function was to thresh out beforehand all matters of importance which were to be disposed of by the General Faculty at their next meeting. Its work in this way sensibly facilitated the progress of business in the Faculty room by bringing it forward in a digested form, for this made practicable a quick decision on the merits of each case as submitted. The Academic Council itself not infrequently relied upon a sub-committee to investigate a question under consideration, and report first to its own body before the Faculty was informed of the conclusion reached. Such a question was the one that came up in 1904 touching the regulations to be adopted for entrance examinations, — at that time under earnest discussion.

The General Faculty was divided into administrative committees charged with the performance of certain clearly defined duties; thus there was a committee of this character to supervise the University publications; another, athletics; another, the catalogue. There was

a separate committee appointed for each of the following purposes; to keep in order the University cemetery; to oversee the condition of the buildings and grounds; to adjust the entrance requirements; to advise with the librarian; to follow the affairs of the different college associations; to superintend the religious exercises; to arrange for the public celebrations; to regulate the relations with the accredited schools. In addition to these different committees, there was one to watch the condition of the several devices in use for fire protection; another to find out the means of self-help for students of small income; another to keep the University clock and bell in proper repair; another to manage the affairs of the Commons Hall; another to supervise the graduate department; and still another to superintend the Summer School of Methods. For additional purposes, there were other committees in active existence. In short, there was no single interest of the University,—indeed, no important branch of any single interest,—that was not under the protecting eye of a trained committee.

The largest membership embraced in any committee was to be observed in the one in charge of publications. That membership numbered eight; but, of the committees in general, the membership ranged, on an average, from seven to three. Most of these committees acted through sub-committees, which reported to their head-committees; and the latter, in turn, reported to the President and General Faculty.

After the establishment of the office of President, much of the business which had formerly been transacted by the General Faculty was transferred to the minor faculties representing the several departments,—academic, law, medical, and engineering. The dean of these departments possessed some of the powers of the

former chairman of the Faculty. To each was frequently referred the applications from students submitted to the minor faculty of that department. A student found deficient was first admonished by his professor, and then by the dean of his department; and it was the dean's duty to report that fact to the young man's parent or guardian.

With the delegation of authority to councils and committees, the need of the General Faculty holding frequent meetings steadily declined. In 1907, there seem to have been eleven sessions of that body; in 1909, ten; in 1911, nine; in 1914, four; and in 1915, five. Between October 22, 1906, and November 24, 1917, apparently the number of meetings did not exceed seventy-nine, a yearly average of seven,—the greater number of the seventy-nine occurring previous to 1911.

One of the innovations which followed the creation of the Presidency was the use of the academic cap and gown. This had been introduced by President Alderman at Tulane University. In a short time, several ceremonies were established at the University of Virginia which were thoughtfully calculated to increase the dignity and impressiveness of its administration. For instance, in 1905, the graduating class was, for the first time, formally presented to the alumni at the banquet at finals. Next, the University Hour was appointed. This was a monthly meeting of teachers and students in the public hall for the purpose of discussing the numerous questions which involved the interests of both. Convocation Day, in the autumn, and Founder's Day, in spring, were celebrated with academic processions, full of color and distinction; and on the same occasions interesting addresses were delivered. Thus, on the ceremonial side of university life, a new vision was exhibited, which

recognized that the splendor of a seat of learning can be promoted, not only by an appeal to the sense of intellectual acquisitiveness, but also by an appeal to the sense of beauty and dignity.

XIV. *The Students — Number, Birthplace, and Parentage*

During the session of 1904–05, approximately six hundred and sixty-two students matriculated at the University of Virginia. By March, 1913, that number had grown to eight hundred and thirty-six; but it was not until the beginning of the session of 1915–16 that the roll embraced one thousand names,—the thousandth name being that of Matthew S. Martin, of New Jersey. By March, 1916, the number of matriculates had swelled to one thousand and sixty, and by March, 1917, to one thousand and ninety-two. During the interval between 1904–05 and 1915–16, the rate of increase had not exceeded fifty per cent.

The explanation for the slow advance during the early part of this period was to be found in the operation of several adverse influences: (1) the adoption of more rigid entrance examinations by the University; (2) the popularity in the world at large of certain branches of technological education, which could be more satisfactorily acquired in institutions devoted exclusively to that province of study; (3) the reputation for difficulty which had long stuck to the University's undergraduate courses; and (4) the false impression that the expense of living within its precincts was abnormally high. There was a suspicion that jealousy on the part of some of the less prominent colleges had led them to exaggerate the importance of all these supposititious drawbacks. The principal competitors of the University of Virginia in the State, at this time, in enrolment of students, were

the Polytechnic Institute at Blacksburg, the College of William and Mary, the Military Institute at Lexington, and Washington and Lee University. At least two of these,—the College of William and Mary and the Virginia Military Institute,—like the University of Virginia itself, received a large number of matriculates without any charge for tuition.

The declaration of war with Germany led to a shrinkage in the roll of matriculates at the University of Virginia during the session which followed that event. By March, 1918, when American participation in hostilities had been protracted over nearly twelve months, the number of its students did not exceed seven hundred and sixty; but before another session had passed, that number had rebounded to thirteen hundred and eighteen, the largest, up to that year, in the history of the institution, and the immediate result of the return to college of so many young men whose education had been temporarily interrupted by their enlistment in the army,—from which they were now withdrawn, as peace had been again established.

To what States were the students enrolled in the Ninth Period, 1904-19, accredited? And what was the proportion of attendance belonging to each State? The number of matriculates coming from Alabama previous to 1916-17 had never, in any one year, risen above thirty or fallen below fourteen. Arkansas could never claim, during the same length of time, more than sixteen; Florida more than twenty-two; and Georgia more than twenty-seven. During some of the sessions, each of these commonwealths was represented by one half of these respective numbers. In 1907-08, Kentucky had sent forty-four matriculates; in 1911-12, fourteen only; but in 1918-19, the attendance from that State rose to

thirty-nine. The largest number which Louisiana could claim between 1904-05 and 1916-17 was twelve; the largest which Mississippi could claim was twenty-four; North Carolina, thirty-one; South Carolina, twenty-seven; Tennessee, forty-eight; West Virginia, thirty-two; and Texas, twenty-six. All these States showed a large increase in enrolment during the abnormal year of 1918-19.

The smallest attendance to which any of these commonwealths sank was six matriculates. This occurred only in the case of Louisiana. In the instance of both North Carolina and Texas, it was seven; of South Carolina, eight; of Mississippi, twelve; of West Virginia, fifteen; and of Tennessee, seventeen. The number of students from Virginia who matriculated in 1904-05 was three hundred and seventy, and in 1908-09, four hundred and thirty-five. There was a shrinkage to three hundred and ninety-four in 1910-11; but, in 1915-16, the attendance from this State rose to six hundred and fifty-five. The same abnormal increase was observable in its enrolment in 1918-19 as in the case of the other commonwealths of the South.

Among the Trans-Mississippi communities represented in the lists for the Ninth Period were Arizona, California, Colorado, Idaho, Kansas, Iowa, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, North and South Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, Utah, Wyoming, and Washington. Previous to 1917, about three hundred and sixty students matriculated from these States; about two hundred and one from Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio and Wisconsin; and about five hundred and ninety-two from Connecticut, Delaware, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island and Vermont. Of these

commonwealths, New York contributed the largest number of matriculates, with Pennsylvania following close at its heels. China, Japan, and the South American Republics were also represented by a small attendance.

	1907-8	1911-12	1914-15	1918-19
North Atlantic States	51	56	48	44
South Atlantic States	530	562	710	977
South Central States	139	127	129	188
North Central States	34	26	25	14
Western States	19	27	15	6
Foreign Countries	5	8	8	5

The above table would seem to show that, during the interval between 1907-08 and 1918-19, it was only the attendance from the South Atlantic States that increased substantially. With the exception of the South-Central States,—in which there was a small addition,—the other great divisions of the Union disclosed a positive shrinkage in their enrolment; and this was most conspicuous in the roster of matriculates for the North-Central and the Western States. From this fact, it would be inferred that the drift in the attendance of students at the University of Virginia during the Ninth Period, 1904-1919, was away from these latter two groups of commonwealths at the very time that the registration from the South Atlantic States,—practically the former Confederacy,—was rapidly growing in volume. In 1905-06, the University of Virginia and Princeton obtained about thirty per cent. of their students from beyond the borders of the States in which they were situated, while the proportion for Columbia, Cornell, and Harvard Universities, and the University of Pennsylvania, ranged from thirty to twenty-six. In 1914, the attendance at the University of Virginia from outside the boundaries of its own commonwealth was estimated at a ratio as high as fifty per cent. The University of Michigan alone approximated this figure.

In what schools were the young men who were enrolled prepared for admission to the University of Virginia? In 1906-07, about forty-one per cent. of those registered had been students in private high schools; about twenty-two per cent. in public schools; about twenty-six per cent. in colleges; and about nine per cent. in universities. Only about two per cent. had been taught by private tutors. In 1911-12, the group of young men who entered for their first session had received their previous drilling in the following institutions: fifty-one in universities; fifty-nine in colleges; ninety-nine in public schools, and one hundred and thirty-one in private. As yet, the private school could claim the largest proportion of the matriculates. In 1912-13, the number of first-year students who had been previously trained in universities was forty; in colleges, seventy-one; in public schools, one hundred and eleven; in private, one hundred and twenty-two. The private high school could still show the higher proportion. In 1916-17, forty-five of the first-year students had been instructed in universities; seventy-six in colleges; one hundred and twenty-two in private schools; and one hundred and seventy-five in public. The public school had at last run ahead of the private in the numerical race.

The remarkable growth in the attendance of students in the undergraduate or college department was thought to be due to this rapid increase in the number of young men who had received their secondary education in the public schools. What an important tributary to the reservoir of the University the public high school had now become is disclosed by the fact, that, in 1906-07, twenty-six of the thirty-three Virginian counties without a representative in the student body did not possess a single school of this grade,—in other words, only seven

counties of the State that had not established public high schools had been able, during that session, to add to the University's list of matriculates; and the same general ratio continued to be observed during later years.

We have seen, in our description of earlier periods of the University's history, that the proportion of young men returning to the precincts for a second or third year of study was far smaller than would have been normally expected. The same condition was perceptible during the Ninth Period. In the long interval between the sessions of 1904-05 and 1915-16, only eleven hundred and forty-five of the twenty-two hundred and forty-one first-year students entered for a second year; only six hundred and eleven for a third year; only two hundred and thirty-three for a fourth; and only seventy-four for a fifth. Dean Page attributed the failure of so many to come back to the professors' inability, from overwork, to give the necessary amount of attention to each student. Discouragement, for one cause or another, was, undoubtedly, the reason which influenced a large number to remain away after their first session. Not all had been sufficiently trained even for the college or undergraduate department; and this deficiency possibly continued after admission, either because of their own indolence, or because the number of professors was too small to remove the shortcomings of all the members of their classes. Restricted means too led many first-year students to limit their attendance to a single session; and the desire to earn a livelihood in active life at the earliest hour practicable governed the decision of many of their companions.

These several grounds for depression did not come into such powerful play in the Northern institutions of learning,—especially in those in which the modified curric-

ulum still prevailed. In Princeton University, the proportion of students of the first year who did not return for a second session was only twenty-two per cent.; and in Williams College, eighteen. This was very near the ratio for the other seats of higher learning situated in that part of the country.

What was the parentage of the students who registered during the Ninth Period? Of the seven hundred and ninety-six enrolled during the session of 1905-06, five hundred and twenty-seven replied to an inquiry submitted to all on this point,— eighty-seven were found to be sons of farmers, about sixteen per cent. of the whole number: eighty-two, the sons of lawyers, about fifteen per cent.; and seventy, the sons of merchants, about thirteen per cent. The most important of the other pursuits disclosed in the return were medicine, manufactures, real-estate, clerkships, teaching, civil engineering, banking, contracting, and the ministry. During the session of 1909-10, forty-four per cent. of the young men were the sons of farmers, merchants, and lawyers. The farmers were still the most numerous in the parentage. During the session of 1911-12, nearly every calling in the community, from the highest to the lowest, from the proudest to the humblest, was represented,— of the students reporting, one hundred and three were the sons of farmers, one hundred and two, of merchants; and sixty-five, of lawyers. The sons of parents engaged in the remaining pursuits ranged in number for each pursuit from two to forty. During the session of 1913-14, the majority of the parents were still farmers, merchants, lawyers, and physicians, taken in the order named. Forty-seven callings were to be found in the parentage. In 1914-15, the farmers again headed the list, followed by lawyers, physicians, and clergymen. Forty-nine pur-

suits were represented during this session. During the session of 1916-17, eighty-four per cent. of the students reported their parentage,—the farmers again led, followed, in proportion to numbers, by merchants, lawyers, physicians, clergymen, real-estate agents, bankers, brokers, railway employees, manufacturers, and teachers. All the other vocations were also represented.

It may be seen, from the preceding enumeration, that the largest proportion of students were the sons of farmers; the next largest, the sons of merchants; the next, the sons of lawyers. The number of parents belonging to the learned professions fell, as a whole, short of the number of those who pursued the ordinary callings. The progress of the Ninth Period does not seem to have altered this condition.

In 1906-07, the average age of the students enrolled in the college department was nineteen and three-quarter years; in the graduate, twenty-six; in the engineering, twenty and one-third; in the law, twenty-two and two-thirds; and in the medical, twenty-two and one-half. In 1914-15, the average age of the students in the college department was twenty years and two-thirds of a month; in the graduate, twenty-five years and three months; in the law, twenty-one years and eleven months; in the medical, twenty-three years and one month; and in the engineering, twenty-one years and two months. During the session of 1910-11, the average age of the whole body of students was twenty-one years and two months. In 1913-14, it advanced to twenty-one years and four months; in 1914-15, it fell back to twenty-one years and three and one-half months; and in 1915-16, it further declined to twenty-one years and two months. During this session, the average age of the first-year students was nineteen years and ten months.

xv. The Students — Admission of Women

Previous to 1910, the question had been raised but once whether or not the student body should be permitted to receive recruits from the ranks of women; this was in 1893; and after a somewhat timorous coquetting with the proposed innovation, the Faculty and Board of Visitors decided that the University must be reserved for persons of the male sex alone. At that time, there was no very aggressive sentiment abroad in Virginia in favor of granting the same opportunities to women as to men for the acquisition of a higher education. There was, it is true, a hazy sort of impression that, as a matter of common equity, they were entitled to it in all the institutions supported by the State; but public opinion was not yet ripe for the introduction of so radical a change. Many years were yet to go by before the women themselves, under astute leadership, would grow bold enough to knock, not at the Faculty door of the University, as in 1893, but at the door of the General Assembly itself, as the most direct path to the possession of those educational privileges which they stoutly asserted belonged as much to themselves as to men.

The first bill was entered on the calendar of the Senate in January, 1910, by Aubrey E. Strode, of the Amherst district, one of the ablest members of that body. Under its provisions, women who were at least eighteen years of age could be enrolled in the undergraduate department of the University, but they were not to occupy the class-rooms with the male students,—a special group of buildings was to be erected for their use; special equipment supplied; and special instruction given, just so soon as the required fund should have been accumulated by the Board of Visitors. This measure, which had a

coordinate college distinctly in view, failed of passage in the Senate by a narrow margin, and was not brought up in the Lower House.

A second bill, known by the names of its patrons as the Early-Rison bill, was submitted in 1912. It provided for the inauguration of coordinate education at the University on a more elaborate scale than the preceding measure had done. The bill expressly prohibited a system of coeducation in the undergraduate department, but that system was to be allowed in the graduate and vocational departments, should the Board of Visitors, having no objection to the innovation, consent to lay down the terms for admission. The Governor of Virginia was to be empowered to appoint the members of a board to supervise the affairs of the projected coordinate college. The Rector and President of the University were to serve as members of that body *ex officio*. The bill containing these matured provisions was defeated in the Senate by a large majority of votes, and was never pressed to an issue in the House of Delegates.

But the advocates of a coordinate college were not to be discouraged,—in 1914, a third bill was introduced. This provided for the establishment of such a college; appropriated a large amount for its construction; and expressly subordinated its administrative board to the Visitors of the University. The Senate passed favorably on the terms of this measure, but it failed of adoption in the House by six adverse votes. A fourth bill, submitted in 1916, with almost identical requirements incorporated in its text, was successful in the Senate, but was lost in the Lower Chamber by a margin of two votes. Two years later, Senator Strode, with his spirit of loyalty to the cause only whetted by all these discomfitures, introduced the fifth bill, which provided for the admission

of women to the graduate and professional departments, — with the exception of law and engineering, which were omitted from the list. This bill, having been entered low on the calendar, never reached a vote.

Such, in very bare outline, was the history of the legislative steps taken in the progress of the controversy which the proposed innovation at the University aroused. By keeping these successive steps in mind, the course of that controversy, and all the influences which entered in it, are rendered more intelligible.

When the movement for the higher education of women began in Virginia, it was acknowledged by all who were interested in its success that there were only three ways of securing for the members of that sex the advanced instruction which they demanded as a right: (1) by the erection, at the expense of the State or private philanthropy, of a great college resembling Bryn Mawr, Vassar, and Wellesley Colleges and entirely conducted by women; (2) by throwing the doors of every seat of learning in Virginia, controlled by the commonwealth, open to the entrance of female students on a footing of complete equality with male; or (3) by building an imposing coordinate college, which, in essentials, would be divorced from the University, but, in the point of administration and guidance, would be subject to the authorities of that institution. The proposed college would be an integral part of the greater seat of learning, but separate from it. They would be equal in dignity, equal in scholarship, and equal in all other claims to consideration.

It was the general opinion that Virginia was not yet in possession of sufficient wealth to justify the State in erecting an entirely distinct female college, like the greatest of those in existence in the North and England; nor, at that time, could it be hoped that private benevolence

would undertake to build such an institution. It was the impression of many men who had pondered over the question of higher education for women that their isolation as students was not favorable to the acquisition by them of the richer fruits of such education. "I do not believe," declared the President of the University in a letter addressed to the Board of Visitors in December, 1917, "that a policy of complete segregation is the best way to give to women the training which they will need for their public life in the century to come." And this was also the conviction of many of the female advocates of this wider instruction for the members of their sex. What those advocates as a body preferred was either a partial association with the State University in the form of coordinate education, or complete identification with it through the adoption of coeducation. Every one of those measures, which, as we have seen, were introduced into the General Assembly in the interval between 1910 and 1918, had in view, not absolute independence, like that of a private foundation, but, at the lowest reduction, coordination. It was equality that was desired, if not within the actual bailiwick of the male students, at least so near the fence as to catch some of the inspiration pervading the atmosphere of the jealously guarded ground beyond it.

While the controversy over the admission of women to the advantages of the University was absorbing the attention of the General Assembly, what convictions on that subject were expressed by the authorities and students of the institution? The editors of the magazine, in 1911, pointed out that coeducation already prevailed in the medical department, for had not a class been established for the training of nurses? Had any harm followed? None at all, was the reply. How

then could evil consequences be expected to spring from the proximity of a coordinate college? One beneficent result at least was certain to flow from it,—it would increase the number of those who would be practically interested in the prosperity of the University. In other words, it would be sure to swell the contents of the University's treasury. But it is doubtful whether the students as a body, at this time, took so favorable a view as this. They unquestionably did not do so at a later date.

The President and most of the Faculty, in May of the same year (1911), by formal resolution, assumed a favorable attitude towards the proposed coordinate college; urged its establishment in the "environment" of the University; and advised that it should have a separate and distinct individuality and academic life, but that, at the same time, it should be so joined on to the University, through its administrative board, as to make unnecessary any duplication of instruction and expense. An amendment was afterwards submitted, which, while approving coordinate education, set forth the suggestion that coeducation might be practicable beyond the Master's degree. Forty-two of the professors present supported this amendment, but without committing themselves beyond that point. Messrs Graves, Dabney, Echols, Minor, and Wilson, who were warmly inimical to the proposed coordinate college, voted in the negative. These members of the Faculty had been cooperating with Eppa Hunton, Jr., Murray M. McGuire, and Henry Taylor, spokesmen of the Richmond alumni.

It was the opinion of both President Alderman and the rector, Armistead C. Gordon, that the establishment of the coordinate college was the only means of warding off coeducation in all the departments of the University. "Is it not saner," wrote Mr. Gordon in January, 1912,

to an opponent of the bill then under discussion in the General Assembly, "is it not really wiser, that the friends of the University, by allying themselves with the coordinate bill in its least objectionable form, shall seek to control, guide, and direct this force rather than permit it to fall into possibly reckless hands? I favor the coordinate college because I am opposed to the coeducational university. This movement, I feel assured, will never end until Virginia women receive a university education." Such was the conclusion which had been reached by most men who had been observing the drift of public sentiment.

The cry for higher educational opportunities for Virginian women was never more insistent than it was at this hour. Where was the most modern advanced instruction to be obtained by them? Not on their own soil. Not a dime was then appropriated from the State treasury for such instruction in its highest form for the benefit of the members of this section of the community; not a dollar for the benefit, even in a lower form, of at least eighty per cent. of the women who taught in the public schools. On the other hand, the facilities in the State for the higher education of men were sufficient to meet the needs of two thousand or more of their number; and great sums were expended to afford them all these advantages.

It was pointed out by advocates of the coordinate college that the experience of Harvard University, Columbia University, Brown University, and Tulane University,—each of which had connected with it an institution of this kind,—had proven the perfect feasibility of this type of institution. "Coordinate education," said President Faunce, of Brown University, "has meant for us the same standards, the same examinations, the

same degrees, the same teaching force, for women as for men, and, at the same time, an entirely separate social life." The same experience was reported by the representatives of Radcliffe, Barnard, and Sophie Newcomb Colleges. It was asserted that, in these coordinate institutions, the women did not feel like intruders. On the contrary, their attitude, sustained by their separate college life, was one of complete independence, and yet contemporaneously they enjoyed all the benefits of instruction by university professors, and the use of the best libraries and the most fully equipped laboratories.

In spite of all these practical illustrations, the bill of 1911-12 was thrown out, as we have already mentioned.

XVI. *The Students — Admission of Women, Continued*

In December, 1913, in anticipation of the discussion which the reintroduced bill was expected to arouse at the approaching session of the General Assembly, the Visitors expressed their willingness to listen to a debate on the merits of the question involved; and an invitation was sent out to prominent supporters and opponents of the measure to be present and to speak at the next meeting of the Board. The arguments offered on this occasion are worthy of being summarized as showing the differences in the opinions bearing upon the subject in controversy. President Alderman's convictions were submitted in the form of a letter. "The coordinate college," he wrote, "would assure (1) economy of force; (2) unity of effort; (3) a better understanding between the men leaders and the women leaders in social effort. To women themselves will come from such association with men a certain tradition of honor and breadth, a certain habit of courage and thought, a certain discipline of the mind, which will greatly tend to fit them for the uses

of freedom." "Princeton University and the University of Virginia," he continued, "were the only seats of learning of the first order in the United States which had undertaken no responsibility for the higher education of women. This attitude of aloofness might be assumed without censure by a privately endowed independent institution like Princeton, but could the same position be safely held by a State University, the creature and the servant alike of the people?" The reply was an emphatic negative.

Mrs. Mary Branch Munford, who may be correctly called the Joan of Arc of the movement for the higher education of women in Virginia,—a champion who was never daunted by an army of opponents, and never dismayed by a world of difficulties,—took up the argument where President Alderman had left it. Jefferson's plan of a university, intermediate college, and primary school, she said in substance, had been realized, so far as men were concerned, by the growth of the public high school. For them, the University had become the capstone of the public school system. But not for women. For every boy who finished the course in the high school, there were two girls who also completed it. Where were these innumerable couples to obtain the advanced training necessary to fit them adequately to be high school teachers, social workers, competent mothers? The women only asked that the University should be the capstone of their educational system as well as the capstone of that of men, as it was now.

The State, Mrs. Munford continued, had been appropriating one hundred thousand dollars less for the support of the female normal schools than for the support of the various institutions then in existence for the training of persons of the male sex. Virginia stood in

the category of Delaware, Maryland, Georgia, and New Jersey, from the fact that she, like them, provided no collegiate education for women. Could she really afford to provide such education by founding an independent institution, in which every facility would have to be built up from the ground? But even if she could, why erect such an institution when there was the University, with its administrative force, its teaching staff, its library, and its laboratories, all in operation? It was one of the advantages of the proposed coordinate college at Charlottesville that it would make possible a stricter degree of economy than an independent college elsewhere could do, simply because it would have available for its own use the various instrumentalities already in the service of another seat of learning. In addition, the coordinate college would be able at once to share in the traditions of scholarship, and in the prestige of academic achievement, which had been accumulated by the older centre of culture. It was the influence of these subtle possessions which had attracted to the University of Virginia professors of the highest order of acquirements. Could a new independent female college, without a large endowment, hope to secure that class of teachers? Certainly not. What was needed, as well as what was desired, was a college standing off to itself far enough to ensure absolute privacy for its students, and yet not so remote from the University as to impair the efficiency of the teachers who would lecture in both institutions, or to cause serious inconvenience to the students in using the common utilities.

Professor James M. Page described the pecuniary advantages which would result from the establishment of a coordinate college. "The principal financial saving in having the Woman's College located near the

University," said he, "will be in securing an adequate teaching staff at a comparatively low rate. None of the present full professors of the University could undertake to give courses in the Woman's College in addition to what they are already doing. Instead, however, of employing an adjunct professor of a certain subject, paying him fifteen hundred dollars a year, the University might join with the Woman's College and employ an able full professor at three thousand dollars, the University paying one half the salary, and the Woman's College the other half. This full professor could do at the University of Virginia the adjunct professor's work, and at the Woman's College, the full professor's work. With the aid of an instructor, that particular subject could be cared for. Pay him eight hundred dollars. Thus fifteen hundred, added to eight hundred, would get full work instead of paying three thousand dollars. The second saving would be in having one president instead of a woman president besides at five thousand. The Woman's College could be operated through a dean who could give one-half of his time to teaching. One bursar and one registrar could serve both institutions."

The speech in opposition to the founding of a coordinate college was delivered by Murray M. McGuire, an alumnus of ability and prominence, whose exceptional loyalty to the institution was known to all. He dissented from the opinion held by the President and the Rector, and many other interested persons, that the adoption of the coordinate college project was the only practical means of driving away the spectre of co-education from the University class-rooms. He had employed all the powers and energies at his command to discredit the several bills on the legislative calendar,

and the argument which we now repeat in substance was the one which he had successfully put forward, and was to continue to reiterate, before the committees of the General Assembly. It was the strongest that was offered on that side of the controversy.

The University of Virginia, he said, had been a man's college from the beginning, and as such it had won all its extensive reputation. Its tradition of scholarship, its form of administration,—both grew out of the fact that it was founded for the instruction of men, and to encourage the association of men with men. The most important feature of its social polity was the Honor System. This could not be prolonged on its present footing, or on any footing at all, should the Woman's College be affiliated with the University. The Faculty would have to pass new laws touching that system; and the more such laws adopted, the more serious, in the students' judgment, would become the encroachment on their rights. The principle of self-government could not fail to be enfeebled and undermined, since it would be impossible, in actual practice, to apply the rule with the same degree of strictness to the members of both sexes. Furthermore, the need of economy would be certain to augment as the demand for new buildings, more professors, and an enlarged administration grew with the increase in the size of the student body. In order to meet this need, coordinate education would, in the end, be forced to merge and disappear in coeducation. To what resources could the State look for the fund that would be required for a double number of professors, salaries, dormitories, lecture-rooms, expenses, and repairs of all sorts? Could not this difficulty be overcome by the adoption of coeducation? Unquestionably. Nor would

there be the same insurmountable objections to such coalescence as in the case of the schools for the two races.

Necessarily, the atmosphere of the University would be altered by the proximity of a woman's college, for the former institution would be theirs as much as it would be the male students', even if they should attend lectures in different halls or should occupy separate living quarters. It would be neither a woman's world nor a man's world,—rather it would be an atmosphere of a mixed character and of no distinction. It was different with the coordinate colleges now in existence, for, without exception, they were situated in cities. The significant fact had been noted that the unaffiliated woman's seminaries were far more numerously attended than these annexes. It was not accurate to say that Virginia women were registered in the female colleges of the North in larger groups than Virginia men were registered in the male colleges situated in that region. There would be no advantage to women in possessing in common the University's staff of teachers, as these teachers were already overworked. How could they be rightly expected to prepare for two classes? Who would correct the additional exercises of all sorts, and also the voluminous examination papers?

Not one of the objections marshalled by Mr. McGuire was devoid of a solid foundation in fact or reason. But the logic of the position taken by him, and those persons who shared his opinion, was that either an independent institution must be erected for women, or they must be denied all enjoyment of the ripe educational facilities possessed by men in Virginia. If the need of economy, as he said, would convert coordinate education, in time, into coeducation, then the same need was equally

certain to stand in the way of the building of an independent college for the members of the female sex. The ultimate inference of that line of argument seemed to be that Virginian women must remain indefinitely without the advantages of that higher education which even Mr. McGuire and his supporters acknowledged they had the moral, if not the legal, right to claim and enjoy.

When the debate came to an end, the Board of Visitors announced that they would reserve their decision until the ensuing January 5 (1914). When they re-assembled on that date, they adopted a resolution to the following effect: that it was due the young women of the State that they should have the amplest opportunity to obtain the highest education which the Commonwealth could afford to give; and that the surest way of creating such an opportunity for their benefit was to found a coordinate college in affiliation with the University of Virginia. They recommended that, before this step should be taken, a commission should be appointed by the General Assembly to report upon the cost of erecting such an institution; and, on the same occasion, it was also suggested that the site should be chosen on the eastern side of Charlottesville. The object in view in this proposal was partly to enable the projected college "to realize a definite individuality," as the President of the University expressed it; and partly to allay the somewhat gratuitous apprehensions of those alumni who thought that the mere presence of so many young women would diminish the dignity of the older institution.

When the bill for the establishment of the coordinate college came up again in the General Assembly, during the winter of 1913-14, the former arguments used in

support of, or in opposition to, the measure, were again submitted. The wishes of the female advocates of that measure were succinctly stated by Mrs. William G. Stanard. "The kind of college wanted," said she, "will consist of a group of buildings, containing class-rooms, dormitories, and recreation halls, within its own grounds, about half a mile from the University. The college will be a part, and under the control, of the University, but with such women superintendents and leaders as shall be found necessary to be resident within it and control its students. The college will have its own name, its own individuality, its own life, but will share, separately from the male students, the teaching force and the laboratories of the University to such a degree as may be found possible without detriment to the interests of the male students. The coordinate college will thus have the stamp which able professors have given the University; share the sentiments and historical interest created by a century of background; and breathe a measure of the atmosphere of ideality that is one of the characteristics of Jefferson's creation."

Such was the reasonable and temperate position taken by thoughtful women at that stage of the controversy. The bill, however, was defeated, as we have already mentioned. Again, in the winter of 1915-16, the same measure was listed on the calendar of the General Assembly. A few weeks earlier, the Board of Visitors had recommended that legislative authority should be obtained for the establishment of a coordinate college just so soon as sufficient funds should become available for its erection and maintenance. It was expected that the State would appropriate one hundred thousand dollars for this purpose, while another one hundred thousand would be collected in the form of

private subscriptions. The President of the University again summed up the advantages to accrue to it from the projected college: "First, it would, through that college, have its opportunities of service increased enormously; second, it would be able to reach with its help one-half of the community which it had never pretended to reach before; third, it would become an object of constructive interest to a great multitude of new homes in Virginia, the South, and the United States; fourth, it would, in time, create new departments peculiar to its own life,—like art, domestic economies, museums, and lecture foundations; and, fifth, the new duties imposed upon it would foster in it new energies, new latent powers, new sympathies,—so that, drawing near to the whole community, it would become a far more useful, a far more inspiring institution, for it would touch, with creative hand, all sides of State and national life."

These arguments, pertinent as they were, failed of their mark, for the new bill for the authorization of the coordinate college was again defeated. The proposed measure simply could not ride down the opposition of those alumni who were convinced that coordinate education was the first stage to coeducation, or the hostility of those persons who thought that the sum to be appropriated could more properly go to the improvement of the primary schools. So far, the project had not been directly patronized by the University. The committee of women, apparently disheartened, submitted, in December, 1917, to the Board of Visitors, a new bill for approval; and they urged that body to father the measure openly at the approaching session of the General Assembly. During the discussion of the provisions of this bill by the Visitors, it was disclosed that,

of their entire number, ten altogether, nine were convinced that it should not be pressed so long as the war lasted.

The committee of women were not in sympathy with this seemingly reasonable view,—they expressed the opinion that the coordinate college needed the University as much in the time of war as in the time of peace. What institution could train women for all branches of war-work as successfully as the University of Virginia could do? Which could better prepare them for the radical economic innovations which were certain to follow the close of the conflict? On the other hand, the University needed the coordinate college. Was not the whole row of dormitories in East Range locked up because so many young men had been drawn away into the army? Were not the lecture-halls half empty for the same reason? If there should be a lack of room within or near the precincts to accommodate all the female students, could not board and lodging be obtained in Charlottesville?

But the Visitors could not be persuaded to recall their decision. They believed as firmly now as before in the practical wisdom of establishing the coordinate college, but they were convinced that nothing was to be accomplished at this hour by their complying with the request of the women's committee. That committee, therefore, determined to go ahead independently. The bill, which, through their action, found its way into the General Assembly in the winter of 1918 seems to have stirred up a feeling of unexampled bitterness. One observer informs us that this emotion was fanned into such a flame that the fundamental academic issues of the controversy were forgotten. "The opposing contestants no longer see things in a clear and detached way," he said, "and the

time has come to drop the matter until a newer vision can be obtained." And so apprehensive were the University authorities of the lengths to which this exasperated sentiment might go, in the settlement of the controversy, that the President, in a letter to R. Walton Moore, earnestly counselled that all legislation bearing on the admission of women to the University should be confined to the field of the professional and post-graduate courses.

There was sound reason for this prudent advice. By 1918, the argument which had been used by hostile alumni that the coordinate college would divert to itself funds that ought to be reserved for the country schools had produced such a temper in the members of the General Assembly that many of them were convinced that coeducation was the cheaper system, and, therefore, would interfere less with any appropriation which they might wish to make for the public schools of the State. This impression had really exercised an opposing influence from the beginning of the controversy. In a letter to Mr. Gordon, the rector of the University, written as early as 1913, a prominent citizen had condemned the coordinate college bill on the ground that the Commonwealth possessed thousands of illiterate children who, for their own tuition, were pitifully in need of the solicited funds. "Should such facilities be denied them," he asked, "simply to gratify the hobby of a few women who were aspiring to establish a school of higher training for women?"

The enemies of the coordinate college bill among those alumni who were taking the leading part in the discussions of the legislative committees still positively refused to admit that the coordinate college was the only means available to ward off coeducation, either in

whole or in part. But nothing in their arguments had tended to shake the convictions of the President of the University. It fretted him to think, he wrote in 1918, that the University might, by that time, have had the co-ordinate college in full operation, to offer the amplest assurance that coeducation would always be excluded. A modification in the attitude of the committee of women was plainly indicated in a remark of Mrs. Munford's recorded in March, 1919. "I am more and more impressed," she said in a letter to President Alderman, "with the wisdom of getting the Board of Visitors behind a proposition for opening the graduate and professional work of the University on a full coeducational basis as our next move." Ultimately, this policy was successful. In 1920-21, for the first time in its long history, women students were registered in the graduate and professional departments of the University of Virginia. In the meanwhile, coeducation, without limitations, had been introduced within the precincts of the College of William and Mary.

XVII. *Matriculation and Entrance Requirements*

At the beginning of the Ninth Period, 1904, the annual session opened on the Thursday which preceded the seventeenth of September; and, with an interval of ten days for recess at Christmas, continued until the Wednesday that preceded the nineteenth of June.

Under the custom prevailing at this time, the new student, so soon as he arrived at the University, repaired to Madison Hall, where he obtained information about boarding-houses, lodgings, and the method of matriculating. He was required by the rules to report his presence to the dean of the University within the ensuing three days. By that official, he was called upon to submit a certificate of good moral character, either

conferred by the institution which he had last attended or given by some person of respectable standing. He was expected next, on the same occasion, to hand over a diploma or certificate as proof of scholastic preparation; and if he could show neither the one nor the other, he was required to pass an entrance examination. Having fulfilled any one of these conditions, he received a card from the University dean, with the direction to carry it to the dean of the department in which he wished to be enrolled; who, having questioned him and found his replies satisfactory, gave him a second card to be delivered to the different professors associated with that department; and all of these having, in succession, interrogated him on the subjects taught in their several schools, and discovered him to be properly informed, his name was written down in their rosters. The card was then carried back to the dean of the University, who jotted upon it the amount of fees to be paid by the holder; and this card, so inscribed, was taken by the latter to the bursar, and the entire sum so designated turned over to that officer in cash or by check.

The first lectures were delivered on the ensuing Monday; and on the following Tuesday evening, a reception was given in Madison Hall to the new students, at which refreshments were served by the ladies of the University. On Wednesday evening, the young men assembled *en masse*, and for the benefit of those who had matriculated for the first time, a series of addresses were made by older students on various aspects of college activities,—such as the magazine, the several smaller journals, the Honor System, and the like. The new students also then received their earliest lessons towards learning the college songs and the college yells. At one time, on an appointed day, all the first-year matricu-

lates were required to be present at three o'clock in the public hall; and here the members of each division were presented by the dean of that division to the President,—who, subsequently, welcomed the whole body into the hospitable fold of the University.

We have mentioned incidentally that every new student, in order to gain admission to the institution, was compelled to hand in a diploma or certificate from the college or school which he had previously attended, or to pass successfully the prescribed written examination. This scheme of entrance requirements was made obligatory in September, 1905, just one year after the first President's administration began. The resolution in favor of its adoption had been affirmed during the preceding October. The object of these requirements was to ensure the admission of a more thoroughly equipped set of students, and also to bind the secondary schools more closely and helpfully to the University.

What was the general character of the diploma, the certificate, and the written examination? The character of the diploma and the certificate underwent a number of superficial changes during the Ninth Period, but only the subjects of the written examinations were substantially altered from time to time. The diploma must have been given by an institution of collegiate rank. The certificate also must have been received from such an institution, or from an accredited school, public or private, which offered courses in harmony with the requirements laid down by the State Board of Education. If the certificate was from a school situated beyond the borders of Virginia, that school must have been included in the list of those accredited by the State University, or some other important institution, of the commonwealth in which it was situated. In 1915-16, the condition was

laid down that the certificate must, if given by a public school, show that the recipient had graduated after pursuing a course of four years, while the certificate from the private school must indicate substantially the same achievement. In 1909, a certificate from the summer school was made acceptable within the discretion of the dean of the University.

The regular examinations for admission occurred annually in June and September. Those which were held in September were held at the University, while those held in June were held in the accredited schools, and were based on papers which the University had transmitted to the headmasters of these schools. Such papers were afterwards returned. The Honor System was enforced in the examination-room while the answers were preparing.

The general examination, when first introduced, embraced such a test of knowledge of English as had been fixed by the entrance requirements adopted by the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Southern States; the like test of knowledge of certain of the simpler branches of mathematics; and the like test of knowledge also of two elementary courses belonging to any two of the following subjects: the Latin, Greek, French, German and Spanish languages, history, physical geography, algebra, geometry, plane trigonometry, astronomy, physics, chemistry, and botany. By 1908-09, the requirements for admission by examination had been increased to the extent of one hundred and fifty per cent. It was said that they were as severe as those prescribed in the most exacting American universities. In a general way, it may be stated that, at this time, the examinations to be passed were to be in

certain branches of English, mathematics, and history, and in addition, in any four of the following courses: the Latin, Greek, German, French, and Spanish languages, science, and applied mathematics. This rule was still in force in 1915-17. The requirements were now gauged in units, a unit being taken as the equivalent of one full year of high school work embracing five periods weekly of not less than forty minutes each. During the session of 1916-17, the number of units assigned was increased from fourteen to fifteen. It had previously been twelve.

Besides the general examinations, there were examinations for classification. These were held at the University alone, and were restricted to September. In the beginning, they were pertinent only to the following academic schools: the Latin, Greek, Teutonic and Romanic languages, English literature, historical and economical science, pure mathematics, applied mathematics, astronomy, and natural philosophy. The candidate who passed in any one or more of these examinations for classification was absolved from standing the corresponding general examinations.

One of the objects which the entrance requirements had in view was the encouragement of cordial relations between the University and the secondary schools. The innovation was fully successful in accomplishing this purpose. One of the few complaints that were heard from the principals of these schools previous to 1907 was that the standards of the requirements were too low. This, however, was removed by the more rigid tests which went into effect in June, 1908, and June, 1909. Several headmasters in the private academies were of the opinion that certain collegiate branches in

mathematics, and in the Latin, English, French, and German languages, should be transferred to the secondary schools; but the authorities of the University of Virginia declared that "it would be wrong to have the academic work in a State university begin at a point which was utterly unattainable by the best public high schools of the State." Some of the principals also counseled the abolition of the certificate altogether, and the enforcement of written examinations in the case of every entering student. This suggestion also was received with disapproval, on the ground that experience had shown that the natural and logical way to transfer a pupil from one member of the public school system to another,—whether this was from the primary or grammar school to the high school, or from the high school to the University,—was by a carefully adjusted method of certificates.

It was acknowledged that the regulation had its flaws,—for instance, a small percentage of students annually brought out the fact that their previous drilling had been inadequate,—but, taken as a whole, "the entrance requirements," in the opinion of the Faculty, in 1916–17, "had, after being in force during a period of twelve years, been justified by their results." Applicants for matriculation who had left behind their twentieth birthday and could prove that their preparation for the courses which they wished to pursue was entirely satisfactory, were permitted to join these classes without having first passed the examination normally demanded; but they were denied the right to become candidates for a degree. Such applicants were compelled to stand the regular classification examination, however, before they could be admitted to any school in which that examination was required.

XVIII. *The College Department*

Having been enrolled in the roster of matriculates, the academic student undertook either an undergraduate course or a graduate course. Previous to the establishment of the presidency, there existed what was known as the academic department, divided into the college or undergraduate section and the University or graduate section. At that time, the schools embraced in this department comprised the schools of ancient and modern languages, literature, history, philosophy, and the sciences. Each of them offered at least one undergraduate course, which had to be traversed by every candidate for the degree of bachelor of arts who had chosen an elective in that school. This undergraduate course was followed by a graduate course. Completion of the two entitled the successful student to the diploma of graduation.

During the existence of this system, the income of the University was too small to justify the employment of one professor for the undergraduate course and another for the graduate, in each school. It was the universal impression among scholars that the qualities required of an instructor in the one course were different from the qualities required of the instructor in the other, for, in the one, he was called upon to be simply a teacher of facts, and in the other, to be an independent investigator. The proper scope of the undergraduate course had already become a subject of general discussion. It was the belief of many educators that much of this work, in its primary stages, could be more successfully prosecuted in a small college than in a university; and in some of the institutions of the North, the suggestion had already been advanced that the freshman and sophomore years should be abolished.

Among the important steps taken at the instance of President Alderman, during the first years of his administration, was the formal division of the old academic department into the college department and the graduate department; the former senior classes were incorporated in the graduate department; the former junior and intermediate classes in the college department. This division was correctly pronounced by him to be "a clear and scientific definition and development of the college and graduate school, and a necessary unity in the structure of the University."

In 1908, it became necessary to reorganize the college department, in harmony with the requirements of the National Association of State Universities; but it was not until the session of 1912-13 that the change was fully completed. The position which that association had taken was as follows: "The standard American university, hereafter, shall, for an indefinite time, include, as an important part of its organization, a standard American college. This college shall offer a four-year course, and it shall be so arranged that its first two sessions shall be deemed to be a continuation and a supplement of the secondary instruction given in the high school, while its second two sessions shall keep in view an advanced or university instruction, rising methodically to the level of the work of the graduate school." Already, in some of the great universities of the North, there was to be observed a cleavage of the college into the junior and senior college, in accord with the general principle thus enunciated.

In June, 1910, a very able report of the committee on rules and studies recommended that there should be no alteration in the college courses of the University of Virginia assigned to the first year; but that the

courses assigned to the last three years should be modified. It is unnecessary to enter here into the full technical details of the proposed changes. It is sufficient to say that the plan of four or five courses each session was substituted for the plan of three studies then in vogue; that, from this time forward, each student in the college department was required to accomplish a minimum of fifteen hours of class attendance a week; and that two hours in the laboratory were to be counted as one hour of lecture. It is to be remembered that all these important changes applied only to the college department. It was the work of the old senior classes, represented now by the graduate department, that had given the University of Virginia its high reputation for scholarship; and these were not to be affected by the reorganization.

The advantages of reorganization may be summarized in a few paragraphs.

From the time when the old junior and intermediate classes were first established in each school, they were taught by the professor who had charge of the senior class; and he pursued the same method of instruction in all his classes, whether junior, intermediate, or senior. It followed that the University spirit was infused into even the undergraduate courses from the very start; and so continued until the new principle of sharp division in spirit as well as in scope between courses was brought into play. It was expected that, under the operation of this principle, an ever increasing number of the graduates of the high schools would be successful in the pursuit of the undergraduate studies, for this had been the experience of every State university which had adopted it. "As the college of the University of Virginia is now organized," said Dean Page, before the

change was made, "only the elect can triumph. Even with our present enrolment of first-year students, there ought to be one hundred successful candidates, each session, for the baccalaureate degree, instead of only twenty-five. The baccalaureate degree elsewhere stands for liberal education, and not as an evidence that the holder is a specialist in at least seven branches of learning. Moreover, a crying need of our public school system is that these schools shall be manned, at least to a reasonable extent, with the graduates of the college of the State University, but where only the elect can graduate, their ambitions soar far above the position of a teacher in a public school."

In spite of the difficulty of winning the baccalaureate degree at the University of Virginia before the reorganization actually took place, its possession only enabled the recipient to obtain in the Northern and Eastern institutions of learning a small fraction of the advanced standing which he could rightly claim. Indeed, unless the degree itself had been acquired, the New York Board of Education positively refused to give any credit at all for work done in the course. These Northern educators declined to admit that the nine-hours-a-week plan of the University of Virginia was as beneficial to the student as their fifteen-hours-a-week plan; and there was danger that the Association of State Universities would refuse to accept that institution as a standard American university, should it fail to meet their requirements.

Again, with the college reorganized, the existing awkwardness of adjusting the advanced standing of candidates from other seats of learning would be simplified, and the migration of students from university to university would be encouraged,—a condition which was to

prove distinctly advantageous to the University of Virginia. Furthermore, reorganization would strengthen the department of graduate studies. As the college courses were formerly arranged, the student who was in his fourth year need not be more advanced than the student who was in his second year. He could win his degree without having got even a foretaste of the higher work of the graduate department. This could not occur under the requirements for the college course laid down in the scheme of reorganization. Another drawback of the old nine-hours arrangement was that the student, having but one lecture a day on three days of the week, and two lectures on the alternate days, was inclined to undertake additional tasks, which were certain to overburden and overcrowd him. This disposition was most conspicuous in the young men who had graduated in the secondary school, where the rule of twenty or more periods a week in the class-room prevailed.

The disadvantage of reorganization was confined to the fact that the University of Virginia thereby abandoned the unique position in the general province of educational theory which it had held from the beginning. An impression arose that, in adopting the standard principle, the institution lowered its old tests of scholarship. Apparently, this was incorrect, for the principle was limited in its operation to the college courses, which corresponded to the earlier junior and intermediate classes. The graduate department, representing the old senior classes,—which alone had given the University its great reputation,—remained unmodified.

The recommendations of the academic faculty, as incorporated in the report of the committee on rules and courses, were adopted by the Board of Visitors, who, in doing so, pointed out that, under the proposed plan, the

student would obtain twice as much instruction as under the then existing plan; and would also have the various stages of that instruction more precisely and logically graded from start to finish. The Board thus epitomized the practical results to be brought about by reorganization: (1) the adjustment of the courses and methods of the college department more strictly to the work of the secondary schools, on the one hand, and to the work of the graduate and professional departments of the University itself, on the other; (2) the bestowal on all candidates for the degree of bachelor of arts and bachelor of science of the same amount of personal teaching in languages, literature, history, philosophy, and mathematics, as had always been given such candidates in the schools of natural sciences in the University of Virginia, and on all subjects in other American seats of learning of equally high standing.

Five years after the reorganization of the college department was completed, the particulars in which that department most clearly demonstrated the substantial progress which it had made can be enumerated as follows: (1) the entrance requirements had been advanced to fifteen units; (2) a course in physical training had been established, which increased the number of session-hours needed to win the baccalaureate degree; (3) one graduate study, to which certain undergraduates were admitted, was counted at three hours instead of at six, as formerly; (4) the minimum grade to which the student in the undergraduate department must attain during his first term, in order to ensure his remaining, had been materially raised; (5) additions to the teaching staff of that department had allowed of more instruction by men of professorial rank than was given by men of that rank in most of the standard institutions.

One of the important features of the undergraduate department was the provision which assigned each new student to an official adviser. It was, however, optional with the matriculate whether or not he should take advantage of this arrangement. It was the duty of the dean of the college, in 1908, to prepare, before the session opened, a list of full professors and adjunct professors who had expressed a willingness to serve in this capacity. Ten students were tallied off to each adviser, who must always be one of their teachers in the classroom. If any member of this group, or the entire number, became dissatisfied with an adviser by the end of the first term of the session, it was permissible for him or them to turn to a substitute who was likely to be more popular in his counsel. Before the rule allowing the employment of an adviser went into effect, there had been an attempt to curb the right enjoyed by the first-year student to make an unfettered choice of schools. The committee of the Faculty which had charge of rules and courses in 1906-07 recommended that such a student should be required to confine his attention to a small number of fundamental cultural subjects. "A free elective system," said the dean of the college, Professor Page, "is detrimental in the college course;" and he was authorized to use the veto in every case of an obviously unsuitable selection. It was, perhaps, to afford him relief from this exacting duty that the plan of naming advisers was adopted.

XIX. *Department of Graduate Studies*

In 1904, the University of Virginia was elected a member of the most exclusive scholastic organization in the United States; namely, the Association of American Universities. Four years afterwards, there were eight-

een institutions entered upon the roll of this body, and the University of Virginia was the only one situated in the region lying south of the Potomac and Ohio Rivers. No seat of learning was eligible unless engaged in graduate work; and it was to increase the usefulness of such work that the association was founded. Through the weight of membership in this association, all graduate work accomplished at the University of Virginia was allowed credit in the most important universities of Europe.

To be entitled to admission to the graduate department, the candidate for the master's or the doctor's degree must be able to show that he had already received a baccalaureate degree either from the University of Virginia, or from some institution of collegiate rank which he had previously attended, or at least a certificate of graduation in an equivalent course, should that institution not confer such a degree. The graduate studies in 1905-06 were open, not only to bachelors of arts and masters of arts who were candidates for higher honors, but also to young men in the possession of one or the other of these degrees, who, lacking time and money, were anxious to pursue advanced work along special lines without regard to winning a still higher degree. The advantages offered to an aspirant for the doctorate of philosophy were unsatisfactory, owing to the numerical shortness in the teaching force. "It cannot be expected," remarked the dean of the department during this period, "that a single professor should do justice to B. A., M. A., and Ph. D. courses in a great subject all at the same time." By 1906-07, graduate studies had been introduced into every academical school.¹

¹ See Chapter XXV for additional information about the degrees of the graduate department.

There was some doubt expressed during this year as to whether the University of Virginia was, as yet, in a position to do well, simultaneously, both undergraduate and graduate work. The question that perplexed the minds of these critics was, in their own words, "Should that institution be made up of a college with university tendencies, plus a graduate school with collegiate tendencies? Or should the University of Virginia consist of a college with lower standards than it has had up to the present, plus a real graduate school, which has not so far been established?" The authorities very properly thought that a college of high standards and a genuine graduate school could be built up at the University of Virginia side by side; and there was constant progress towards the consummation of these ideals as the years passed on.

It is germane to our subject to compare the number of students who registered in the college department with the number that registered in the graduate department. During the session of 1904-05, there were three hundred and six enrolled in the former, and thirty-two in the latter; and six sessions afterwards, at the same date of the month (March 20), the corresponding numbers were three hundred and fifty-two, and thirty-four. In 1915-16, the number of first-year students in the college department was two hundred and seventy-four, and in the graduate department, eleven. The total number in each respectively was five hundred and thirty-nine, and fifty; in 1916-17, five hundred and ninety-three, and fifty-two; in 1917-18, four hundred and fifty-seven, and sixteen. In consequence of the World War, the draught on the ranks of the more matured students of the graduate department was heavier than on the ranks of the younger men of the college

department,—the loss in the former amounted to seventy per cent.; in the latter, to only thirty-five per cent.

In 1907–08, twelve of the students in the graduate department had obtained their baccalaureate degree from the University of Virginia. Of the thirty students enrolled in this department in 1909–10, a small minority had received that degree from the University of Virginia, while the majority of the remainder had received it from other institutions situated within the State. Of the forty-seven students registered in the department in 1914, nineteen held the baccalaureate diploma of the University of Virginia. Harvard, Princeton, and Michigan Universities were represented among the rest of the institutions conferring the degree. The proportion of bachelors from the college department of the University of Virginia fluctuated from thirty per cent. to fifty per cent. of the whole number enrolled in the graduate department.

If we consider all the schools embraced in these two departments, an examination of the records for the Ninth Period reveals that the most numerous attended class was the class in English literature,—during the session of 1904–05, for example, one hundred and seventy-four students were entered on its roll. The School of Mathematics followed close behind with one hundred and seventy. During this session, the average attendance in fifteen schools was seventy-six students. In 1907–08, the attendance in the School of English Literature rose to one hundred and ninety-one, while the attendance in the School of Mathematics fell to one hundred and twenty-three. The average enrolment in twenty-two schools was forty-nine students. In 1913–14, the corresponding figures for the Schools of English

Literature and Mathematics were one hundred and sixty-eight, and one hundred and forty-eight. The average registration in twenty-six schools was now seventy-two students. The Schools of English Literature and Mathematics continued to be the most popular during the session of 1914-15,—by which year, the average attendance in twenty-seven schools had increased to seventy-seven.

XX. *Academic Schools*

In the chapters that immediately precede, an account has been given of the entrance requirements and also of the college and graduate departments. What were the studies embraced in these departments, to which admission was gained in the manner already described? We will consider the several schools in sequence, beginning with those pertaining to the languages, both ancient and modern.

The first in order now, as formerly, was the School of Latin. On the threshold of the Ninth Period, 1904, it was said of the work of this school that it found its logical place in the Virginian system of public education by taking up the study of the language at the point where that study had left off in the high school. In other words, the pupil admitted to the School of Latin was presumed to have spent at least four years beforehand under a competent teacher in a public high school in acquiring a knowledge of Roman pronunciation, quantity, and accent; in being drilled in grammar and prose composition; and in mastering the elementary reader, the campaigns of Caesar, and the easiest orations of Cicero, the *Metamorphoses* of Ovid, and the *Aeneid* of Virgil. The standard course of reading in the high school seems to have been four books of Caesar, six

orations of Cicero, and six books of Virgil. In 1914, the proposition came before the Board of Public Instruction to curtail these requisites. Professor Fitz-Hugh opposed the suggestion. "Under the prevailing system," he said, "seventy-nine per cent. of the Virginian students passed successfully our seventy per cent. standard, while the record showed a steady improvement, from year to year, in the Latin preparation, under the stimulus of the standard requirement. The records show that, since the establishment of the full standard for admission to Latin A (the lowest grade) in the University, there has been a marked improvement in the preparation of Latin students entering the University of Virginia from public high schools widely scattered in the State."

In the four courses in Latin pursued in the University, in 1904-05, the general topics covered were the language, literature, and life of the Romans. The final course was designed for graduates only. By 1907-08, there had been an enlargement in the scope of the studies for the benefit of undergraduates and graduates alike,—more advanced ground was now taken in all courses, and more subjects added, so that not a phase of the three great primary divisions remained neglected. The lyric, the epic, the dramatic, the historical, the biographical, and the philosophic side of the literature; the public, the religious, the mythological, the artistic, the cultural side of the life; the character and structure of the language in its different ramifications,—all were subjected to an exhaustive exposition.

During many years, the Hertz collection of classical texts had been stored away unutilized in a garret of the Rotunda. This was known to be the richest collection of its kind to be found in the South; and yet it had

served no practical purpose owing to its inaccessibility. For lack of its aid, the work of the School of Latin had been seriously crippled. By the session of 1913-14, this choice library had been fully classified, catalogued, and shelved in the classical seminary adjoining the lecture-room of the Schools of Latin and Greek.

An acute need was felt about 1911-12 for classical scholarships which would enable the most promising students in the School of Latin to undertake an advanced course without leaving the University of Virginia. A costly stereopticon was now regularly used by the head of the school, in the course of his lectures, in illustration of classical art and life, while plaster-casts of several of the most beautiful statues of the Roman and Greek civilizations had been bought and put in place in Cabell Hall for public exhibition. There was now an increasing desire for the acquisition of a museum of classical art, and the establishment of a school of archaeology. Partly through the influence of the University, the Classical Association of Virginia and the Richmond Society of the Archaeological Institute of America had been successfully organized. The Classical Association formed an integral section of the State Teachers' Association, and through that connection, it was able to stimulate the interest taken in the ancient languages in the public schools. The leading American students of archaeology were drawn to Virginia by the Richmond branch of the Archaeological Institute for the purpose of delivering lectures; and several of them spoke on that subject at the University, under the auspices of the School of Latin.

At the beginning of the Presidency, the studies belonging to the School of Greek were arranged as follows: there was one course intended for beginners

only; succeeded by a second course, composed of easy Attic prose and elementary grammar and exercises; and by a third course, composed, in its turn, of prose somewhat more difficult, together with exercises and instruction in literature, history, and meters. These three courses were designed for the benefit of undergraduates only. For undergraduates and graduates, there was a fourth or advanced course which covered certain works of Demosthenes, Thucydides, Aeschylus, Sophocles, Aristophanes, and the lyric poets; and also included the study of meters and syntax. The fifth course was intended only for graduates who had determined to give their time up to perfecting themselves in classical scholarship. In addition to these five courses, there were four special ones which continued during a half-session. They may be described as follows: selected readings (1) from the entire province of Greek literature in the order of its historical growth; (2) from Greek orations, for the elucidation of grammar and artistic form and style; (3) from the Attic drama; and (4) from the great poets, to throw light on music, rhythm, meter, and structure. A course in private reading was also prescribed for each class in this School.

In June, 1912, Richard Henry Webb, a graduate of the Universities of Virginia and Harvard, was elected to fill this professorship. "The primary object of the courses open to undergraduates," he said, in taking up the duties of his chair, "is to enable the student to read and appreciate the masterpieces of Greek literature. The study of grammar will not be treated as an end in itself; but the ability of the student to construe his authors satisfactorily will be constantly tested. In order to obtain a knowledge of the broader aspects of ancient life, collateral reading in English on various

subjects will be assigned for outside work; and questions based on this reading, will be included in the examinations."

The first course was designed to satisfy the needs of students who wished to gain, in a short time, a working knowledge of the Greek language, either as an aid to the study of other languages, history, and theology, or with a view to a more extended acquisition of Greek itself. But it was not intended to supplant the lessons of the secondary schools in the same tongue. During the session of 1914-15, the ground covered by the instruction in the School of Greek was embraced in seven courses. Two of these were taught by an assistant; the remainder, by Professor Webb. Twenty-three students were enrolled in the school in 1912-13; twenty, in 1913-14, thirty-seven, in 1914-15 and fifty-one, in 1915-16.

During the session of 1904-05, the study of the modern tongues was assigned to two schools: the School of Teutonic Languages and the School of Romanic Languages. The former school embraced the courses in English grammar and etymology; English literature previous to the advent of Shakespeare; and the German language and literature. One course in English was designed primarily for undergraduates, its object being to lay a broad foundation for the intelligent study of the tongue on both its historical and its literary side. For undergraduates and graduates, there was the same course in a more specialized form, and with greater stress laid on the historical aspects of the language. The course designed for graduates only was still further specialized. English literature previous to Shakespeare was now exhaustively presented, and also English philology,—with a review of Gothic, Old and Middle English, Old and Middle High German, Old French

phonology and grammar, and the principles of comparative grammar and syntax.

The German courses were designed for both graduates and undergraduates. They began with elementary grammar, reading, composition, and exercises; passed on to a course that assured a broader view of the philological and literary aspects of the language; and closed with the study of the tongue on the historical side, an examination of the masterpieces of German literature, and the presentation of the salient characteristics of German life. There were five special courses for graduates, ranging from those in Middle High German, and in epic and lyric poetry, to those in Old High German and Gothic. In 1915-16, there were three German courses for undergraduates: the first, which was for beginners, treated of grammar and prose composition,—with a particular stress on pronunciation and simple conversational expression; the second was confined to readings of prose texts illustrative of modern German life and thought, and grammatical and conversational exercises and composition; the third bore upon the history of German literature,—with conversational exercises and composition themes also. There was a second general course for undergraduates and graduates. In its first section, the instruction was conducted in the German tongue. The subject of the second section related to historical grammar,—with selected readings from Goethe. The third general course was designed for graduates, and seems to have been limited to candidates for the degree of doctor of philosophy.

During the incumbency of Professor Harrison, the chair of Teutonic languages was taught with unsurpassed efficiency in the field of English philology, which, until 1908, remained associated with this chair. The breadth

and thoroughness of his knowledge of this province, as well as of the romance of word and language history was extraordinary. His attention was less engaged with German as a living, spoken tongue. In the advanced courses, fruitful instruction was given by him in etymology and historical grammar; and extensive parallel reading in classical German was required. He was especially interested in the Germany of the Romanticists, but less so in the various phases of more modern periods. The method followed by Professor William H. Faulkner, who succeeded him, was in harmony with the one which had been adopted by Professor R. H. Wilson in the conduct of the associated School of Romanic Languages. The aim has been to impart a practical mastery of the German tongue for scientific and literary study as well as for enjoyment. Attention has also been given to the interpretation of the economic, political, and literary history of the second half of the nineteenth century down to the year 1914. In the advanced courses, particular emphasis is laid on the classical period of the literature, and on lyric poetry, ballad poetry, and the drama.

In the School of Romanic Languages, the subjects taught were the Old French and the modern French, Spanish, and Italian languages. To the Old French and Italian respectively one course was assigned; to Spanish two; and to modern French, three. The first course in the latter province of instruction was elementary enough for beginners. In 1907-08, the second course treated of the subject of the novel, the drama, and the lyrical poetry of the nineteenth century; the history of French literature; and the character of the subjunctive mood. The third course gave an interpretation of modern French prose; dwelt upon the tend-

encies of modern French fiction; and described the place of France in civilization.

The first course in the Spanish tongue at this time was also designed for beginners who wished to undertake the study of the language either from a cultural or a practical point of view. The second course touched upon the characteristics of the drama and novel of modern Spain; analyzed the verb; and offered exercises in composition and dictation as a means of perfecting knowledge of the language. In Italian, one course was laid down which required no previous study of the tongue. From elementary grammar, the pupil passed to a series of graded texts, the mastery of which enabled him to read the printed language. The works of Dante, Petrarch and Boccaccio, among the earlier authors, and the works of the most distinguished modern writers, were examined in turn, and the history of Italian literature inquired into.

By the session of 1912-13, some of the courses in the School of Romanic Languages had been altered in several particulars. It is not necessary to dwell on these in detail. A new feature of importance, however, was a course in South American literature, introduced prior to the session of 1910-11. In this course, special attention was directed to the study of conversational Spanish, and to the character of the spelling and punctuation employed in the countries of South America, together with their colloquial and idiomatic constructions. A course in the Portuguese language was added in 1911-12. The object of these studies was to equip the student for trade adventure in the Southern republics. Three sessions afterwards (1914-15), Adjunct Professors Bardin and Hundley delivered a series of lectures on the general character of South America,—its physical

geography, native races, and the like. The history of the conquest, the colonial epoch, and the revolutionary era, were also included in this new course, with a full account of the growth of commerce on that continent and of the increase in its manufactures, and also with a description of its existing universities.

Professor Richard H. Wilson, who had charge of the school of Romanic Languages, laid his principal stress on the practical command of these several tongues; and by making eclectic use of all the modern methods of teaching modern languages, inspired his pupils with a keen interest in the living ones. Taking the present as the starting point, he led them back to the past along many profitable avenues. He, as well as his colleague, Professor Faulkner, also favored the division of large classes into small teaching sections. The establishment of beginners' courses in both schools also constituted an innovation. All these improvements were made feasible by the increase in the number of instructors.

XXI. *Academic Schools — Continued*

In 1904-05, there were three courses in the Kent Memorial School of English. The first, which was designed for those students who were either deficient in training, or preparing for professional studies, embraced the subjects of composition and rhetoric, poetry and prose in general, and the history of American literature. The second course covered the subjects of rhetoric, versification, types of poetry, Shakespeare, Pope, and Johnson, and the poetry of the nineteenth century; the third touched upon still broader themes — such as Shakespeare as a dramatic artist, Johnson and his times, Victorian and American poets, and the like. The course of graduates who were aspiring to the degree of doctor

of philosophy was more or less elective. After the adoption of entrance requirements in the autumn of 1905, changes were made in all these courses,—without, however, substantially modifying their character. In conjunction with this school, a course in the art of public speaking was established in 1907.

As time slipped by, there sprang up a demand for the division of the school into several schools. The original chair was specifically a chair of English literature, but, afterwards, the subjects of belles-lettres and rhetoric were added; and still later, the theme of American literature. The first offshoot established was the Edgar Allan Poe Memorial School of English Literature, to which Professor C. Alphonso Smith, of the University of North Carolina, was called. One of the most important courses taught by him at the beginning of his incumbency had for its topics the short story, the essay, and the oration, as types of literature,—all of which were studied both in their origin and in their structural development; and themes were also suggested by him for essays and orations, and plots for tales. Another course bore upon the general subject of American literature. Professor Smith endeavored to measure the proportionate degree to which each section of the country had, through its authors, contributed to the growth of the national spirit and to the formation of national ideals.

In 1911–12, he taught, in his first course, Old English, Middle English, and lastly, modern English. He also lectured upon the syntax of English, which included the foundation of English grammar, the principles of structure, and the changes now in progress. In his second, he had American literature as his subject; and the third course, which was for graduates, was divided into

two sections: (1) old English poetry and (2) dramatic prologue. Subsequently, Professor Smith delivered a series of lectures on English and Scotch ballads, and the *Morte d'Arthur* poems.

The interest aroused by the course on English and Scotch ballads led in April, 1913, to the organization of the Virginia Folklore Society, an association which, under his inspiration, accomplished a work of singular value. The Bureau of Education was so much impressed with this work that it commissioned Professor Smith, its most conspicuous member, to undertake a nation-wide quest for versions of these old ballads, which had exerted so deep an influence on the sentimental character of so large a part of the colonial population of America. It was his opinion that the task of research could be performed more successfully by the public school teacher than by any other person in the community, since he reached the very class of people who were most likely to have preserved the ancient ballads of the British Islands in their transmitted form in America. A ballad bulletin was issued by the Department of Public Instruction in Virginia, which became a bond between the University of Virginia and those numerous Virginian school-masters who were interested in assisting Professor Smith and the Folklore Society, of which he was the President. Of the original three hundred and five English and Scotch ballads, twenty-six were, after no long interval of hunting, found in Virginia; and of these, five had never been reported to exist elsewhere in the United States.

During the session of 1916-17, the courses taught by Professor Smith embraced, in a general way, the subjects of Old English, Chaucer, and early modern English, the history and the structure of the English language,

American literature by types, the ballads, Browning, and Poe. The most popular of all these topics was the history and structure of the English language, which drew one hundred and fourteen students on the average to his class-room. Professor John Calvin Metcalf succeeded Smith when he resigned after his appointment to the faculty of the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis. Associated with him is Adjunct-Professor H. P. Johnson. Professor James Southall Wilson is the present incumbent of the chair of the Kent Memorial School of English.

In 1906-07, a course in exposition of the theory and practice of journalism was added to the latter chair. It was asserted that this course would furnish all the instruction which could be imparted outside the precincts of a newspaper office. The teacher was Leon R. Whipple. In 1909, the financial condition of the English schools made necessary the discontinuance of this course. In 1915, the President of the University, in his commencement address, spoke of the need of a School of Journalism within the precincts, which would equip young men to serve as the leaders of public opinion. This utterance prompted the class of 1908 to raise a fund to reestablish the chair. In the end, the sum of twelve hundred dollars a year was guaranteed by that particular body of alumni for the support of the professor during a period of three years, by which time it was expected that the chair would be able to maintain itself. The professorship was in full operation by the beginning of the session of 1915-16, and continued in existence until Professor Whipple,—who had been again chosen to fill it,—was displaced by the decision of the Board of Visitors. Twenty-one students registered during the first session. Some of these soon proved

themselves to be successful writers in more than one province of composition. Stories were disposed of by them to the *New York Evening Post*, the *Christian Science Monitor*, and the *Louisville Courier-Journal*; and they are said to have furnished editorials to the *Charlottsville Progress*. A University publicity bureau was organized to prepare a detailed weekly letter for the greater papers, and to forward items of college news to less conspicuous columns.

The study of history in the University of Virginia was, in 1904-05, directed (1) to the unity and continuity to be observed in the progress of world events, with particular regard to the principal periods; (2) to English and American annals; (3) to European development in every aspect; and (4) to the Reconstruction of the Southern States. The third and fourth courses were taught in alternate years. In the first and second, the professor quizzed the student; in the third and fourth, the student quizzed the professor. By 1915-16, the subjects of instruction had been slightly shifted. The first course,—which was intended for undergraduates,—was divided into two sections: one of these treated of general history down to the close of the Middle Ages, and the other, down to the outbreak of the World War. In the second course, which was designed for undergraduates and graduates, the professor lectured on the subject of American history, and in the third, which was designed for graduates only, he lectured either on the general development of Europe or on the Reconstruction of the Southern States.

As early as 1905-06, it had been clearly discerned that the School of History and Economic Science ought to be divided into two schools, a School of History and a School of Economics,—the latter to treat of the sub-

jects of money, credit, and the protective tariff. As the single school then stood, the professor was called upon to traverse ground which, in seventeen of the principal institutions of learning of the country, was assigned to not less than ten instructors. Properly speaking, the then existing school should have been divided into four schools, having, as their topics, history, economics, political science, and sociology respectively. But for the present, the University had to be content to establish a separate chair of economics and political science. This was in operation by the session of 1906-07, with Thomas W. Page as the incumbent. The subject of instruction for undergraduates was the principles of economics; for undergraduates and graduates, the growth of American industry and commerce; and for the graduates, some theme requiring original research. The fundamental weakness of this school, in its early stages, consisted of its inability to offer a large number of courses pertaining specifically to ordinary business affairs. "There is no field," said Professor Page, "in which the Southern college has done so little, and none where growth and expansion would more immediately accrue to the public benefit, than the field of scientific business training. While the Northern and Western States, during the last fifteen years, have been developing schools of this kind, those of the South have either been unable to do so, or have failed to appreciate the need of it." In time, several new studies of a practical bent, preparatory to a business career, were added.

Professor Page was appointed a member of the Federal Tariff Board in 1911, and this chair, during his absence, was occupied by a substitute.

In 1911-12, the instruction in political science related to (1) the formation of the Federal system; the State

and city governments of the United States and the administrative methods of other countries; and (2) political theory and practice. By 1914-15, a separate professorship for political science had been created. Its first incumbent was W. M. Hundley, who, on his translation to the Virginia Military Institute at the end of the session of 1914-15, was succeeded by Lindsay Rogers. During 1915-16, the instruction given in the general School of Economics and Political Science touched upon (1) the principles of economics and constitutional government, commercial geography, taught by Professor Bardin, and commercial law, taught by Professor Forrest Hyde; (2) the growth of American industry and commerce, and public finance, international law, diplomacy, and State and municipal government; (3) politics, jurisprudence, and the constitutional aspects of social and economic problems.

The ground traversed by the School of Moral Philosophy had not, previous to 1904-05, undergone any conspicuous modification during many years,—the instruction, for want of time, had been limited to the bare elements of logic, psychology, ethics, and the history of philosophy. In 1906, the Corcoran School of Moral Philosophy was re-named the Corcoran School of Philosophy. Professor Noah K. Davis withdrew in 1906-07; and for some time, the subjects of logic and psychology were taught by Professor Bruce R. Payne,—who filled the chair of secondary education,—and the subject of philosophy, by Professor Albert Lefevre. After Professor Payne's retirement, Associate Professor Balz and Adjunct Professor Pott were connected with the school. During 1915-16, the three courses belonging to it treated of the following themes: (1) logic, ethics, general psychology, and history of morals; (2) history of

philosophy, psychology, and recent philosophical tendencies; (3) empiricism and rationalism, together with a critical study of Kant, Fichte, Schelling, and Hegel.

The John B. Cary Memorial School of Biblical History and Literature was the outgrowth of a Bible lectureship founded at the University of Virginia by the Christian Women's Board of Missions, and earnestly supported by many persons interested in Biblical instruction. An acute need of such support in the case of that branch of teaching existed at the University of Virginia because the public taxes could not be used for the advancement of religion. There were two obstacles to surmount: (1) how could the prejudice against such teaching at this institution be removed? and (2) how could that teaching be conducted there without raising a suspicion of sectarianism and denominationalism? All this was accomplished by the establishment of a lectureship which had no scholastic connection with the University.

But, ultimately, this was not considered sufficient. How could it be so arranged that work done in a course of Biblical instruction should receive credit in a candidacy for a degree? It was recognized by the teacher of this course, Rev. W. M. Forrest, that it would never acquire its rightful importance until it was placed on a footing of equality with all the other studies prescribed for the baccalaureate diploma. To this status, the lectureship was advanced in 1905-06,—at first, for a period of three years, in order to test the acceptability of the proposed new chair by actual experiment. It was organized as the School of Biblical History and Literature, and on the normal basis of an elective. Its general object was to impart such an acquaintance with the

history and the literature of the Bible as would be taken for granted in one supposed to be liberally educated. This chair was supported by the income accruing from a special fund created by the generosity of the Christian Women's Board of Missions and the children of Colonel John B. Cary, of Richmond,—in whose honor the chair was named. The new associate professor was expected to cooperate with the Young Men's Christian Association in religious work; to deliver open lectures on the Bible; and to teach the local Bible classes.

Through the donation to the general library by Rev. Haslett McKim of a large collection of Biblical volumes,—added to the volumes already there,—the new school came into possession at once of one of the most extensive departmental libraries to be found at the University. By the session of 1908–09, the instruction,—which had, originally, been limited to the history and literature of the Old Testament and the English Bible,—had been extended to the history and literature of the New Testament also. Within a few years, the studies of the school were divided into three courses, leading, like the courses in the other schools, each to its special degree or degrees. In 1915–16, these studies embraced the history of the Hebrew people, the literature of the Old and New Testament, the history of the English Bible, and the theology of the two divisions of the Sacred Book. At first, the members of the class assembled in one of the rooms of Madison Hall; but they were afterwards transferred to the room elsewhere occupied by the School of Moral Philosophy. During the session of 1915–16, the School of Biblical History and Literature was placed by the Standardizing Committee of the Religious Coeduca-

tional Association in the highest class,—that class to which only thirty-one Biblical departments in the United States were then assigned.

XXII. *Academic Schools — Continued*

As has been shown in our history of the School of Mathematics previous to 1900, that school had received its principal characteristics from the stamp given to it by the genius of three of its professors; namely, Bonycastle, who had been trained in an English college; Courtenay, who had been educated in the United States Military Academy at West Point; and Venable, who had grafted upon the methods of these predecessors, the methods of the German and French instructors of the science. The course,—which led up to the degree of master of arts,—at first was spread over three years; the ground which it traversed consisted of algebra, geometry, trigonometry, analytical geometry, and differential and integral calculus; and to these were added by Venable a course in mixed mathematics,—which, however, attracted only a few students.

At the beginning of the Ninth Period, the work of the school was protracted over five years; and there were two professors engaged in delivering twenty-four lectures weekly throughout the length of the session. In the first year, the instruction was in elementary algebra, geometry, and trigonometry; and in the second, in elementary analytical geometry and elementary differential and integral calculus; in the third, in advanced analytical geometry, differential and integral calculus, differential equations, and the history of mathematics. During the last two years,—the fourth and fifth,—the instruction became highly specialized, as the avenue to the doctorate of philosophy.

So large had the attendance now become that the professors could not concentrate the amount of personal attention upon the needs of their classes which they thought imperative. It was said that not less than twenty persons were occupied at Cornell University in giving instruction upon the subjects which Professors Echols and Page were teaching without assistance. After the adoption of entrance requirements in the autumn of 1905, the topics embraced in the entire round of the school were arranged in eight courses. During the session of 1909-10, more elementary texts were introduced in the classes of the college department in order to bring them into closer harmony with the differentiation between the undergraduate and the graduate sections. By the session of 1910-11, two new courses had been added to those already covered. In consequence of the exacting nature of Professor Page's duties as dean of the University, a considerable part of the instruction during the years coming just before 1915-16 was given, under his supervision, by young men who held student-fellowships. In June, 1916, J. J. Luck, a distinguished graduate of the School, was elected adjunct professor in order to take charge of the classes of the first year, so as to afford relief to the overburdened senior professors. During the session of 1915-16, there were in operation five courses for undergraduates, one for undergraduates and graduates, and three for graduates alone. The first course for undergraduates was divided into three terms. In each ascending class, knowledge of the subject of the preceding lower class was essential.

In the School of Applied Mathematics, the subjects taught under the usual division of courses, namely, for undergraduates, for undergraduates and graduates, and

for graduates only, were general mechanics, analytical mechanics, and mixed mathematics. There were advanced courses in addition. The course in mixed mathematics was designed for candidates for the degree of doctor of philosophy; and no student was admitted to it unless he had graduated in the school of pure mathematics, or had enjoyed a previous preparation commensurate therewith. In 1915-16, there were two great divisions: the first course, assigned to undergraduates and graduates, embraced theoretical mechanics; and the second, assigned to graduates, embraced analytical mechanics. The dean of this school was still Professor Thornton.¹

¹ It has been represented to us, by surviving pupils of Professor Leopold J. Boeck, of the original School of Applied Mathematics, that the reference to him in Dr. Culbreth's *Recollections*, which we quoted in a note on page 361, in Volume III, offers a narrow and misleading view of one of the most accomplished and many-sided men associated with the history of the University of Virginia. In contradiction of that view, the following brief outline of his career, furnished by one of these pupils, would seem to indicate a very remarkable degree of manliness, whatever the superficial impression that may have been left by the difference between the Continental European, and the American, personal bearing and manner: "Professor Boeck was a member of the Polish nobility, but lost his estates during the Polish Revolution, at which time he was a student in Germany. He accompanied General Bem, a countryman of his, to Hungary as his Chief-of-Staff and afterwards became the Chief-of-Staff and Secretary to the then Governor, Louis Kosuth. He retained this position until after the treason of General Georgey and the disastrous defeat at the battle of Temesvar, when he was appointed Minister and Agent to the Sublime Porte at Constantinople. Germany, Austria, and Russia demanded his extradition and surrender; and to protect him, the Turks made him a prisoner of war. He was, finally, given a parole at the urgent solicitation of the American minister, Mr. Marsh, and was taken to Marseilles, France, aboard the U. S. S. 'Mississippi.' He proceeded to Paris, and became a professor at the Sorbonne, and remained there until the 'Coup d'Etat' of Louis Napoleon. During his stay in France, he was intimate with Victor Hugo and the first literary characters of that country. After leaving France, he went to England, and later on to the United States. Professor Boeck, soon after his arrival in this country, established the first Technical Engineering School, which he gave up to accept the call to the University of Virginia. The latter years of his life were spent in Philadelphia, first

In the School of Physics, in 1904-05, instruction was given in elementary and practical physics. There were two elementary courses,—one in general physics; the other, in electricity. The advanced courses related to mathematical physics and mathematical electricity, each illustrated by tests in the laboratory. Ample facilities existed for independent investigation. During the

as a professor in the Kennedy School of Technology; and afterwards, he was engaged on his great work, 'The Theory of Graphical Statics and Dynamics, and its Applications to the Workshop and School.' The first parts of this work were published, but his death interrupted its completion."

The following impressive tributes to the character and conduct of Professor Boeck, selected from many placed at our disposal, demonstrate the esteem in which he was held by the men of distinction with whom he was associated. The first is from the famous patriot, Kossuth, of Hungary, and is dated December 13, 1849, when he was an exile. "The undersigned certifies that Mr. Leopold J. Boeck, a native of Prussian Poland, induced by his liberal convictions to take part in the righteous self-defense of Hungary, has served with distinction in the Hungarian Army of Transylvania, attached with the rank of Major to the Staff of Lieutenant-General Bem, and being always employed in the immediate suite of said General, acted as his Secretary of War, dispatching his official correspondence in such an excellent manner, that I, who, as Governor, was in uninterrupted correspondence with the gallant General, was often tempted to envy him on account of his Secretary; and, therefore, when, after the unfortunate catastrophe of Hungary, Major Boeck,—not wishing to follow the example of his chief, who had embraced the creed of Islamism,—parted from him after our emigration to Widdin, I felt very happy to be able to receive him into my own staff in the same capacity. And I only perform an act of the most simple justice by stating that he has filled this confidential position,—which demands as much firmness of character as ability,—with the greatest energy, skill, faithfulness, discretion, and talent, showing me, at the same time, in my unfortunate situation, when I hardly had any opportunity to express my gratitude, so much disinterested affection, that, as he now,—saved from this unpleasant position by the protection of the Prussian minister,—parts from me, I deem it a duty of honor to acknowledge myself his ever grateful friend, and to declare him to be a man who will always respond to every accepted trust, and to every confidence in as distinguished and as honorable a manner."

After Professor Boeck's withdrawal from the Faculty in the session of 1875-76, Professor Gildersleeve made the following reference to him in writing: "Mr. L. J. Boeck, formerly professor of applied mathematics in this institution, is a gentleman of rare attainments as a scholar, of eminent ability as a professor, and of long experience as a teacher.

preceding fifty years, the original school had been divided into three separate schools,—the School of Physics, the School of Geology, and the School of Biology; and it was now predicted that the original school would throw off several more schools, just as the planet Jupiter has thrown off moons; namely, a School of Electricity, a School of Physical Chemistry, and a School of Mathematical Physics. After 1907–08, when the new admission requirements were in force, experi-

During our intercourse here, I have been more and more impressed with his grasp of intellect, his range of knowledge, his power of illustration, and his faculty of vivid statement."

"I have no hesitation in stating," said Professor Frank H. Smith, during the same session, "that Professor L. J. Boeck is the most accomplished teacher of engineering it has been my fortune to know. I have heard a pupil of his lately speak in high terms of the great clearness of his explanations. I have several times seen letters addressed to him by his former students, after they had gone into the active practice of their profession, in which they gave most hearty expression to their gratitude for his instructions, and of their attachment to him as a man." Professor Minor also spoke of Professor Boeck's "very remarkable capacity, learning, and accomplishments."

One of the most distinguished pupils of Professor Boeck was Professor Gaetano Lanza, long associated with the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Commenting on Dr. Culbreth's reference to Professor Boeck's bearing and manner in the class-room, Professor Lanza writes us as follows: "I will say that my acquaintance with Professor Boeck, from the time that he came to the University, until 1871, when I left Virginia, does not justify any such statement regarding him, as Dr. Culbreth has made. I do not know the particular definition of dignity in the minds of those who criticise Professor Boeck in this particular, nor what they think its application should require; but, according to my ideas, the criticism by Dr. Culbreth is incorrect and unfair. Being a foreigner, Professor Boeck used some expressions which sounded strange to American ears, such as "You understand, sir" when talking English, and "Par exemple" when speaking French; but this and other idiosyncrasies do not seem to me to be of sufficient importance to be mentioned in the estimate of a man's ability as a teacher."

There is no minute in the official records of the University of Virginia which justifies the slightest inference that the withdrawal of Professor Boeck from the Faculty was involuntary, and not in harmony with his own personal plans. The testimonials of such men as Professors Gildersleeve, Minor, and Smith, were given after his retirement, and indicate the undiminished good will in which his distinguished colleagues held him.

mental physics were taught in the undergraduate classes; electricity and magnetism in the classes for undergraduates and graduates; and optics in the class for graduates. By 1912-13, a course intended only for prospective medical students had been introduced. This work was confined to the most elementary lines. A course in dynamics also was now given. The professors in charge of this school were Professor Hoxton and Adjunct Professor Sparrow.

The primary aim of the School of Astronomy has been to impart such knowledge of the facts, principles, and methods of the science as every man of liberal education should possess. When the Board of Visitors assembled in November, 1910, a discussion arose as to whether the observatory was then fulfilling all the expectations of the men who had built and endowed it. The original condition attached to the observatory fund was that the director should be called upon only to teach practical and theoretical astronomy. This was interpreted by Professor Stone as meaning such graduate work as would adequately prepare the student for the profession of an astronomer; and to this, he added independent research,—which he continued to pursue until 1889, when the means to print the results unhappily ran dry. It was the opinion of Mr. Hall McCormick, a son of the founder, expressed in 1910, that the original purpose of the gift was to enable the director to keep up this original investigation for an indefinite time, as well as to teach the graduate courses. Instead of doing this, he said, the director, after 1889,—when astronomy had been included, like the ordinary academic schools, in the scheme of the degrees,—was required to devote a large section of his time to drilling his classes in the college or undergraduate courses. In consequence, the

chair,— so Mr. McCormick asserted,— was converted more or less into a professorship of cultural and descriptive astronomy.

In a general reply to this statement, the Board of Visitors declared that the work of teaching had always been the principal duty expected of the director of the school, and that his attention had only been diverted to research in the interval of his performance of that duty. Investigation had not been neglected, as was proven by the achievements of the school in this province during recent years.

After the retirement of Professor Stone, the vacant chair was filled by the election of Professor S. A. Mitchell, formerly a professor in the astronomical department of Columbia University, and acting director of the Yerkes Observatory in Chicago.

It has been said that the old astronomy was the astronomy of the telescope and the eye; the new, the astronomy of the spectroscope and the photographic plate. During the last fifty years, the development of astrophysics has gone beyond the development of every other section of the science. This section is interested in the nature of the heavenly bodies and not in their mutual relations. "It inquires into their chemical make up," we are told, "investigates their physical state, their stores of energy, their radiation and temperature. The work of the modern astronomer is no longer that of a star-gazer. He must be an expert photographer. His work is not finished by daybreak. The workshop of astrophysics includes the laboratory as well as the fully equipped observatory."

The spectroscope had been employed in one course at the University during the period of Professor Stone's incumbency; but greater use of it was made after the

election of Professor Mitchell, who had given close study to astrophysical astronomy, without, however, neglecting mathematical astronomy. By May, 1914, he had a photographic attachment to the great reflector in place; and it was found to give quite as accurate measurements as the telescope at Yerkes Observatory. In order to obtain the means to increase his staff, he sought appointment to the Adams Research Fellowship at Columbia University, and held the position during five years. A solar plate-holder was given to the observatory by Professor Poor of that institution, which made it possible to continue the routine work in the daytime; and a wireless apparatus was presented by John Neilson, of New York. The income of the school was increased by an annual donation from the McCormick family of Chicago.

By 1916-17, the measures of the parallaxes of one hundred stars had been completed by Professor Mitchell. For his accuracy in preparing the observations on meteors taken throughout the United States in 1916, Adjunct Professor Charles P. Olivier was chosen secretary of the meteor committee of the American Astronomical Society. An agreement was entered into with Harvard University, under which the two universities cooperated in observing the variable stars,—Harvard, possessing a smaller telescope, watched a star until it became too faint for observation further; and then the University of Virginia took up the observation and completed it.

In 1915-16, there were three divisions of study in this school: the first, which was intended for undergraduates, treated of general astronomy and modern astronomy; the second, designed for undergraduates and graduates, related to spherical and practical astronomy and celestial

mechanics; the third, which was reserved for graduates, had for its topics advanced practical astronomy, the determination of the position of undisturbed bodies, and the elements of undisturbed orbit, and the theory of special perturbations, advanced celestial mechanics, and photographic astronomy.

Prior to 1907, the instruction in the School of Chemistry had been given by lecture alone. The original method had been purely didactic, but, in time, it was largely superseded by the laboratory method. Formerly, Professor Mallet had offered a course in general chemistry for undergraduates and the candidates for the degrees in engineering. This course, with important additions, was taken over by Professor Robert M. Bird, who had previously filled with distinction a similar chair in the University of Missouri. He was designated the collegiate professor of chemistry and director of the laboratory for undergraduate instruction in that particular province. He practically established a new department. The salient features of his school were the importance of the laboratory instruction and the differentiation between the work done by the engineering students and the work done by the candidates for the baccalaureate degree,—especially in the laboratory, which was situated in the building standing at the south end of West Range, formerly occupied by Miss Ross.

After the adoption of requirements for admission, there were arranged three divisions relating to the science of chemistry; namely, general chemistry, taught by Professor Bird; industrial chemistry, taught by Professor Mallet; and organic chemistry, as illustrated in the laboratory,—which also was taught by Professor Bird. In March, 1909, Professor Mallet was succeeded by Professor Joseph H. Kastle.

There were four bodies of pupils to be instructed at this time: the academic students, who entered upon the course in their pursuit of a liberal or disciplinary education; the students in the department of engineering; the medical students; and finally, the students who were looking forward to becoming professional analysts, assayers, and directors of chemical factories. The Chemical Journal Club was established in 1909-10 for critical review and discussion of topics of interest in current chemical literature, and also to nourish a strong *esprit de corps* among the members of the school. The session of 1914-15 was made memorable by the announcement of a gift of fifty thousand dollars by John B. Cobb for the erection of a great chemical laboratory. Mr. Cobb's donation was exempt from all conditions beyond the expression of the hope that due recognition would be given to chemistry as applied to the agricultural and manufacturing interests. An anonymous benefactor presented, through the President of the University, the supplementary sum of fifty thousand dollars.

XXIII. *Academic Schools — Continued*

In 1904-05, the School of Analytical Chemistry embraced a series of courses in agricultural chemistry and quantitative and qualitative analysis; and also a course in practical chemistry for medical students. The last of these was established in order to conform to the regulations of the Medical Board of New York. After admission requirements were introduced, the course for undergraduates treated of chemical manufacture, blow-pipe analysis, the fire assaying of ores, inorganic qualitative analysis, practice in analysis of salts, alloys, and ores, determination of minerals, and the examination of potable water, coal, limestone, and the like. The

course for undergraduates and graduates related to quantitative analysis of mineral ores, technical products, and so on. A series of lectures on agricultural chemistry continued to be given. The course for graduates was designed to increase the range of their experience as analysts and to cultivate their capacity for original research. There was laboratory work each day. In the end, the School of Industrial Chemistry was joined on to the School of Analytical and Agricultural Chemistry,—which was still taught by Professor Dunnington.

It was estimated that, between 1893 and 1903, barely thirty-nine per cent. of the students enrolled in the classes of practical chemistry sought, after leaving the University, employment as teachers of that science or engaged in industrial enterprises. Manufacturers,—more particularly ironmasters,—were reluctant to accept the new theories, for to do so would make necessary expensive changes in their plants; and it was not until the European factories took the initiative that competition forced the American to follow in the same groove. Rigid tests had now to be applied to ores, fuel, and flux, and in consequence of this innovation, the chemical graduates of the University of Virginia, found no difficulty in obtaining high-salaried positions so soon as they completed their technical education. In 1900, the Du Pont Powder Company needed only three chemists in their business; in 1910, they furnished employment for one hundred and fifty. Between 1906 and 1916, fifty of the former pupils of Professor Dunnington were taken into these great works, and their services were sought, not simply because of their technical knowledge, but also because they had been specially trained to be cautious,

accurate, and prompt,—qualities indispensable in the manufacture of explosives.

The burning up of the old Chemical Hall was a severe blow to the method of teaching analytical and industrial chemistry which then prevailed at the University. The contents lost included a large quantity of rare materials, valuable as illustrations, and of great practical usefulness in research. The destruction of spectrosopes, polarisopes, and microscopes, brought to a temporary close the pursuit of certain lines of investigation. The industrial museum, with its choice collections, had given the students a lasting impression of certain wonders and beauties of nature, and of the patience and skill of men. The new chemical building, however, is fully equipped with apparatus and materials.

In 1904–05, the School of Geology and Natural History was restricted to the subject of geology and descriptive mineralogy. Only one professor was engaged in the instruction of its students; but even then it was thought that more provision should be made for the course in mineralogy by the employment of an additional teacher. There was a demand for lessons in practical mineralogy, and also for laboratory work in the same province. Indeed, the science of geology had so greatly expanded in recent years that no single teacher could cover even the whole of its general principles successfully. An adjunct professor was needed for the work in the field and laboratory. In 1907, Thomas L. Watson was appointed to the chair of economic geology; and when in June, 1910, Professor Fontaine, of the School of Geology and Natural History, retired, the two schools were merged under Professor Watson's general direction. He had the highly competent assistance at

first of Professor Grasty, and, afterwards, of Adjunct Professor Giles.

In 1915-16, the ground traversed by the two schools of general and economic geology was as follows: the courses for the undergraduates bore upon general geology, engineering geology, mineralogy, and determinative mineralogy; and for undergraduates and graduates, on petrology, geology of ore deposits, geology of the non-metallic minerals, geological field methods, structural geology, and invertebrate paleontology. To the graduates were assigned courses in advanced geology, mineralogy, petrography, advanced economic geology, and the economic geology of the Southern Appalachians.

In 1908, the General Assembly reestablished the Geological Survey and fixed its headquarters at the University. The Survey was expected to find out and appraise the geological resources of the State with special reference to their commercial importance,—such as building-stone, coal, clay, cement materials, materials for roads, and the like. Detailed maps, showing the situation and extent of these products, were also to be drafted. The Legislature of Virginia and the Federal Government appropriated jointly the sum of twenty thousand dollars for the support of the Survey; and Professor Watson was put in charge of it as State geologist and director. It was said, in 1912, that no other department of geology in the United States was in possession of so complete a set of maps relating to Southern areas. With its collection of these maps, rocks, minerals and models, the school was able to give instruction unsurpassed in wealth of information and illustration by any similar school in the country. The Brooks Museum was partly rearranged to afford the necessary facilities for additional

lectures and laboratory work; and a departmental library was also begun.

During the session 1912-13, Professor Watson and Professor Grasty undertook, under the authority of the State, to make a geological survey of the Commonwealth from tidewater to the mountains. The various soils, rocks, mineral deposits, and water powers were enumerated in the series of bulletins which followed. There was, at this time, a growing demand in the Southern States for mining geologists. That region possessed one fourth of the mineral resources of the United States, and its output was as high as one fifth of the output of the whole country, and yet its schools only trained one per cent. of the men engaged in superintending the mining that went on within its borders. In 1914, the class in general geology, under the direction and tuition of Professor Grasty, explored the geological formations that lay around the town of Clifton Forge; and such practical tours were frequently repeated.

The first proposal to establish a School of Forestry at the University of Virginia was submitted at a meeting of the Faculty held in May, 1908; but no immediate step seems to have been taken to carry this proposal into effect. It was not until 1914 that the office of State forester was created; and by Act of Assembly, the same relation was established between this office and the University as already existed between the University and the Geological Survey. The State forester became a member of the Faculty; and he was also expected to cooperate with the staff of the Survey, and with the incumbents of the various scientific chairs. He was the principal of all the forest wardens, and was directly responsible to a commission composed of the Governor of

the Commonwealth, the President of the University, the President of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute, the Superintendent of the Virginia Military Institute, and one private citizen specially picked out.

Provision was made for its support by the State after March, 1915. In the meanwhile, a small sum had been placed at the disposal of the new forester, Professor R. C. Jones,—a graduate of the Yale School of Forestry, and formerly an assistant State forester of Maryland,—by the University to meet the expense of the educational and demonstration work of his new chair. This work at first was confined to lecturing before granges, schools, women's clubs, and farmers' institutes. In the end, the University was called upon to pay only for the tuition actually imparted to its class in forestry.


It was stated in a former volume, that, when Professor Tuttle began his lectures, as the new head of the Miller School of Biology and Agricultural Science, he was expected to give instruction to academic students only, but that, within a few years, at the urgent request of the medical faculty, he undertook to offer a course of lectures on the subject of medical biology. Indeed, his greatest service, was, for a long time, performed in behalf of the medical students. The work done under him by academic students, during this interval, was not even counted in their candidacy for any one of the degrees. This course was unpopular, chiefly because of Professor Tuttle's original announcement that each lecture would be accompanied by tasks in the laboratory,—which necessarily would take up much of the time of the students. Such time, they thought, might be more satisfactorily occupied with themes that would lead up to a degree.

When the requirements for the academic degrees were

subsequently altered, and biology was put on the footing of all the other natural sciences, the size of the class, which had hitherto numbered but few members, began to increase, since it was now permissible to choose biology as one of the necessary electives. This growth became particularly noticeable after the removal of Professor Tuttle's lecture-room from the old Medical Hall to the new academic building. There arose, in time, a demand for advanced work as preliminary to the doctorate of philosophy; but, owing to the lack of equipment at that hour, this was discouraged.

With the close of the session of 1906-07, Professor Tuttle brought to an end his connection with the department of medicine, and, thereafter, his labors were restricted to the academic branch of his school. He was at first assisted by W. A. Kepner, who was afterwards elevated to the position of adjunct professor. In 1904-05, the ground traversed by the academic School of Biology embraced (1) the elements of the science; (2) biology and zoology; (3) the histology and embryology of plants and animals, and the morphology of selected groups from each of the two great kingdoms of organic beings; (4) cytology and general biology. It was announced that the aim of the academic school at this time, as formerly, was to offer facilities to students who wished to acquire a general knowledge of biology, such as a liberally educated man would aspire to, or which would fit them to become teachers of the science, or would prepare them for the study of either medicine or agriculture. In 1915-16, the school was divided into three courses: (1) biology and agriculture; (2) botany; and (3) zoology.

The attendance during this academic year was the largest in the history of the school,—sixty students



were then enrolled in the classes of zoology, under the direction of Professor Kepner; and eighty-three in the classes of botany, taught by Professor Tuttle. In consequence of the lack of sufficient space and equipment, twenty-six young men had been denied admission to the lecture-room and laboratory. After Professor Tuttle's withdrawal, Professor Ivey F. Lewis, a graduate of Johns Hopkins University, and subsequently associated with several seats of learning, was elected to one of the chairs of the school.

It will be recalled that Jefferson included in his original scheme of schools a school of fine arts. No practical step was taken, previous to 1919, to realize one of the most enlightened hopes of the father of the institution; but on the anniversary of his birthday in the course of that year, the President of the University announced that the sum of one hundred and fifty-five thousand dollars had been given by Paul Goodloe McIntire for the endowment of the long wished-for chair. Mr. McIntire was an alumnus of the institution and a native of Charlottesville,—a city which he, in a spirit of noble liberality, was soon to adorn with the heroic figures in bronze of several of the loftiest spirits in Virginian and American history. "I sincerely hope," he wrote to President Alderman, "that the University will see its way clear to offer many lectures upon the subject of art and music, so that the people will appreciate more than ever before that the University belongs to them; and that it exists for them."

The series of lectures on art began before the series on music. They were delivered by Professor Fiske Kimball, who had been elected to the newly created chair while associated with the department of fine arts in the University of Michigan. He had also been a

practicing architect of distinction, and had written a very elaborate and discriminating volume on Jefferson's achievements in that splendid province. The School of Fine Arts contributed to the artistic training of the numerous students enrolled in its several classes by offering extensive courses on the history and the interpretation of art, illustrated by exhibitions of loaned paintings and copies of old masters, and by the groups of buildings and statues to be found within the precincts of the University itself.

XXIV. *Academic Degrees — Baccalaureate*

In 1904-05, the candidate for the baccalaureate degree was required to choose ten electives, unless he had selected, as among the number, the respective courses in Latin and Greek,—in which event, the ten were reduced to nine. These electives were to be picked out of the following groups: the ancient languages, the modern languages, history and philosophy, mathematical sciences, experimental sciences, and the descriptive sciences. Among the ten electives were three at large. In choosing the latter, the candidate had to be guided by the selection which he had already made of his first seven. Each of the several groups of studies was subdivided into different courses. There was a frequent shifting of the content of these courses during the Ninth Period; new ones also, like those in Biblical history and literature, economic geology, physics, public speaking, and journalism, were added; but the requirements for the degree did not change to any revolutionary extent.

There arose in 1906-07, however, a sharp controversy over the question whether the choice of the ancient languages, as an elective, should not be left to the option of the candidate for the degree. The course in Latin

seems to have been the centre of the storm that raged so violently for a time. The question first came up in the committee on rules and courses in the form of a proposal to reorganize the baccalaureate studies. It was referred in the beginning to a sub-committee. The principal point involved in that question was: what was a liberal education? Was any separate branch of human knowledge indispensable to such an education? These interrogatories had been growing more and more insistent, as time had passed, with the broadening of all the sciences and the increasing demand for practical information. They had long ago shattered the fixed system of the old curriculum colleges, and were now intruding into the immemorial temple of the Latin and Greek languages, and calling for the reduction of those scholastic deities to a footing of equality with humbler studies, by making them optional also.

The sub-committee pronounced in favor of such de-thronement, and the general committee accepted their decision and recommended its approval by the academic faculty. This body at once began to consider it, in their turn, with extraordinary earnestness; they assembled seven times to debate the subject; and at every meeting remained in session from three and a half hours to four. Every aspect of the question was minutely examined and exhaustively discussed. When the final vote was taken, seventeen professors were present, of whom, two expressed, in vigorous language, their opposition to the adoption of the report; one either voted "no," or did not vote at all; while another happened to be quite deaf and failed to catch the query when put. Among those who voted in the affirmative was the professor of Latin, whose action at the time was not inaptly compared by the advocates of the change to the action of those

Frenchmen of the Revolution, who, in a moment of frenzied patriotism, on a memorable occasion, stripped themselves of all their honors and orders born of aristocratic privilege. The vote stood about thirteen in favor of the innovation and about three in opposition to it. President Alderman counseled that this decision should not be recommended to the Board of Visitors unless the affirmative sentiment among the majority of the members of the Faculty should come, after further consultation, to be shared by all.

The Faculty, in spite of this discreet suggestion, and in the teeth also of the continued antagonism expressed by some of its members, drafted a report in harmony with the general tenor of the original sub-committee's conclusions. This report was supported by energetic statements in writing on the part of several professors. "Why," said one, "should Latin be given any superiority of position over the other courses? What advantage did it possess over history and economics, or English literature, or history,—all of which, if the student desired, could be passed over when he came to make a choice among the electives? Should not the entire number of studies be on a footing of equality?" "In preparing to give students an option between the classics and other things," remarked Professor R. H. Dabney, "the Faculty are no more degrading the former than a host degrades a saddle of mutton when he asks his guests whether they will take that or turkey. He knows that both are good."

In spite of the visions of their annual feasts which this gastronomic simile must have called up in their minds, the alumni refused to be seduced by its plausibleness. Protests against the proposed innovation, expressed in every key, from the sarcastic and scornful to the gravely


argumentative, soon began to pour in from them. The chapters in Baltimore, Charleston, Lynchburg, New Orleans, New York, Washington, and Richmond raised a threatening, a warning, or a sadly remonstrative voice. If there had been any doubt before, there could be none now that the alumni of all shades of opinion and all kinds of occupations, from the scholar in his class-room to the banker in his counting-house, felt so deep an interest in the study of the ancient languages, and valued so highly their own training in those courses, that they would consider their alma mater to be shorn of half her strength, and much of her charm, should the baccalaureate candidate not be required to include those tongues in his fixed groups of studies. Eloquent alumni appeared before the Board to impress that body with the fatality of adopting the suggestion of the Faculty; the Visitors were compelled to pause; and not knowing what else to do at the moment, laid the Faculty's recommendation on the table, with the intention of taking it up at their next meeting.

In the meanwhile, the Board again laid off the courses to be studied by the candidate for the baccalaureate degree. Having met satisfactorily the different entrance requirements, he must, at a later date, pass the regular examination (1) in the first section of English literature and mathematics; (2) in Latin and another language, ancient or modern; (3) in one subject from the group of mathematical sciences; (4) in two from the group of natural sciences; (5) in one from the group of philosophical sciences; (6) in one from the group of history, literature, and economics; and (7) in certain electives at large, the number of which was to depend upon whether one or two ancient languages had been chosen.

By the spring of 1908, it was plainly perceived that

the degree of bachelor of arts did not cover the ground of science satisfactorily, and this prompted many members of the Faculty to advocate a line of studies that would lead up to the degree of bachelor of science. At this time, there were three large groups of collegians who had to be considered in readjusting the degrees: first, the group who thought that the original courses prescribed for the old degree of master of arts embraced all that education had to impart; second, the group who desired to retain Latin only of the ancient languages, and to rely upon the modern humanistic studies chiefly for their cultural development; and thirdly, there was the group,—and it was the largest of the three,—who were content to look to the sciences alone for that development, and who, discarding the ancient languages altogether, valued the modern only as a means of more easily learning those sciences, and more successfully pushing their individual researches.

At their meeting in October, 1908, the Board of Visitors, wisely recognizing the existence of these different groups, created in the college or undergraduate department two new degrees of great importance; namely, the cultural degree of bachelor of science, and the vocational degree of bachelor of science, in neither of which was an ancient language included. This was a satisfactory solution of the controversial problem, for Latin or Greek was still taught in the course to be traversed by every candidate for the degree of bachelor of arts. Moreover, it was a more judicious arrangement than the Faculty had proposed in recommending that all the scientific departments should be consolidated into one department of science. There were now three well balanced degrees in the college department: the degree of



bachelor of arts, which would indicate in the winner the acquisition of a liberal education in all the fundamental branches of knowledge; the cultural degree of bachelor of science, which was open to those who desired a general culture, independent of the classical languages, and with a scientific bent; and finally, the vocational degree of bachelor of science, which was open to those who had decided to pursue in the future a calling requiring special training in some one of the sciences, natural or mathematical. Such a calling was that of the practical chemist, biologist, or geologist, or the teacher of natural or mathematical science. The diploma of the vocational bachelor referred to him as bachelor in chemistry, in biology, in medicine, in architecture, and so on, according to the particular course which he had been able to master.

xxv. *Academic Degrees — Master and Doctor*

The degree of master of arts belonged to the department of graduate studies. Its evolution differed little from that of the degree of bachelor of arts. In 1904-05, it was conferred on the student who, after winning the baccalaureate degree, had successfully traversed the courses in four electives chosen among those assigned to the graduate department. Three of these electives had to bear such a near relation to each other as to form a cognate group. The schools from which the four might be selected had for their subjects the ancient languages, the German and Italian tongues, English literature, history, philosophy, education, mathematics, astronomy, mechanics, physics, electricity, industrial chemistry, analytical chemistry, geology, biology, plant morphology, and animal morphology. It was from this series of studies that the candidate for the prelimi-

nary degree of bachelor of arts had been permitted to choose his three electives at large,— which represented the advanced work required of him for the attainment of that degree.

By a rule adopted in 1907, the candidate for the master's degree was authorized to limit his electives to three subjects instead of as formerly to four. This provision was adopted for the benefit of students who wished to cover an advanced second year's graduate course in one of three subjects, in preference to covering a less advanced course in a fourth subject.

The committee on academic degrees was very strict in inquiring into the preparation of every candidate for the master's degree who had obtained his baccalaureate degree in another institution of learning. He was first directed to return to the registrar an application in writing drafted partly by himself and partly by the President of the college or university which had conferred the preliminary degree; and when this had been examined, it was sent to the academic faculty, either with the committee's unreserved approval, or with the recommendation that the candidate should be required to join on to his graduate electives the undergraduate courses which led up to those electives. The general rule followed by the faculty was that the ground gone over elsewhere by the candidate for the degree of master of arts must conform with reasonable closeness to the ground prescribed for the baccalaureate degree of the University of Virginia.

In spite of all these precautions, there was a popular impression that the new degree of master of arts did not necessarily signify the possession of the same high scholarship as the old degree always indicated. This critical attitude found expression in the following com-

munication to one of the Richmond journals: "Before the present regulation was adopted, did any man ever make the degree of master of arts at the University of Virginia in the short time it is now done? Would it have been in the bounds of reasonable possibility for anyone to have done so? If this is answered in the negative, we submit that the standard of scholarship required by the University for the degree of master of arts has been lowered. Of course, a holder of the new master's degree may be a brilliant scholar, profoundly versed in ancient and modern languages, in history and literature, in the arts and sciences, and mathematics. So, for that matter, may be the holder of an honorary degree. It is not a question of what the master's attainments may be, but what those attainments must be. That determines the value of the degree."

These comments were only pertinent to the case in which the preliminary baccalaureate degree had been conferred by some obscure college which could not be expected to give the same thorough drilling as the undergraduate department of the University of Virginia; and safeguards were supposed to have been raised against the deficiencies of such inferior institutions by compelling their graduates to traverse certain courses in the University's collegiate schools. In June, 1910, the committee on rules and studies recommended that the only foreign baccalaureate degree that should exempt its holder from this provision should be one that had been received from a member of the Association of American Universities, or the National Association of State Universities, or from any other university or college of high reputation whose requirements for admission, or for the attainment of the baccalaureate degree, were commensurate with those of the University of

Virginia. The Faculty afterwards broadened this recommendation by adding the following clause: "No candidate for an advanced degree who has obtained a baccalaureate degree from an institution having the standard prescribed by the Board of Education of Virginia, in February, 1911, in its definition of a college or university, will be expected to do any undergraduate work except such as the committee on rules and courses, and the professors in charge, would consider necessary for the successful prosecution of the graduate courses elected for the advanced degree."

In a general way, it may be stated that the University of Virginia accepted as substantially equivalent to its own baccalaureate degree the like degree of any institution which (1) had a faculty of at least six professors, who gave up their whole time to undergraduate or graduate work; which (2) had adopted entrance requirements equal to those of the University of Virginia; and which (3) offered a baccalaureate course of four years in liberal arts and sciences.

When the degree of bachelor of science was established in the college department, the degree of master of science was established in the department of graduate studies. This new degree was based either on the cultural degree of bachelor of science or on the vocational degree; and in neither instance was Latin or Greek included among its electives. The graduate courses pursued by the holder of the vocational degree were always chiefly those in continuation of the principal subject of his study for the baccalaureate degree.

The requirements for the degree of doctor of philosophy in 1904-05, and afterwards, did not differ substantially from those in force for the same degree during the years which antedated that session. The can-

candidate was still under the necessity of studying what were known as the major course and the minor course; and he must also have won the bachelor's or the master's diploma, either at the University of Virginia, or at some chartered institution of equally high standing. The only exception to this rule was allowed in the case of one who could prove, by actual examination, that he had obtained somewhere an education on a par, in extent and quality, with that which was indicated by the possession of either of the two preliminary degrees. The subjects to be chosen by him were to be three in number; were to be selected from at least two schools; and were to be cognate in character. The major subject must have received the approval of the academic faculty. The period of study was to be spread over at least three years; and throughout this interval, there was to be no intermission in the pursuit of this major subject. The candidate must also show, in reply to searching questions, that he possessed a reading knowledge of the French and German languages, and sufficient information about any other subject considered to be equally essential for the mastery of his course; but he was not compelled to submit to the first test if he had graduated in those languages in winning his baccalaureate degree. Advanced standing for graduate work done in another institution of repute was allowed, if that work was shown to be equivalent to the work of the same character called for in the University of Virginia. The graduate study of the last year of candidacy was always required to be done in the latter institution unless exemption from the rule had been granted by the academic faculty. Every aspirant for this degree who succeeded in obtaining it was expected to submit a dissertation which should indicate original research in the province of his major subjects.

What proportion of the students succeeded in acquiring the degrees of bachelor, master, and doctor? In the interval between June, 1904 and June, 1915,—a single decade roughly speaking,—two hundred and ninety won the degree of bachelor of arts, and between 1908–09 and 1916–17, eighty the degree of bachelor of science. Between June, 1904, and June, 1915, the degree of master of arts was won by one hundred and fifty-eight; the degree of doctor of philosophy, by thirty-one. The largest number of candidates who succeeded in any one year in acquiring the baccalaureate degree was in 1912–13, when thirty-three received the diploma. In this session also, twenty-three candidates for the master's degree were successful. This broke the record for that degree during the Ninth Period up to that date.

It had been sanguinely expected that the introduction of the degree of bachelor of arts in the college department would tend to influence the undergraduates to remain for a longer period at the University; but it was not until 1910–11 that the ratio of loss for the first time showed a falling off. In the meanwhile, the cultural and vocational degrees of bachelor of science had been established; and it was, perhaps, due to these degrees that the slight arrest in the decline took place. Nevertheless, the number of candidates for all these degrees continued curiously small to a point in time as late as 1916–17, in spite of the increase in the general attendance. There were only fifty-two candidates in 1913–14, and in 1914–15, only thirty. In 1916–17, the percentage was nine as against twenty at Harvard University. Many of the undergraduates made no pretense to being candidates for any of the baccalaureate degrees, either because they did not possess the time or the money to return a second year, or because they were

indifferent to the acquisition of a liberal education. In one session alone, 1907-09, at least ninety disclaimed all aspiration for the undergraduate degrees.

The thirty-eight candidates for these degrees in 1909-10 who either failed to return, or to reenter the academic schools, in 1910-11, when requested to give the reason for their action, replied respectively as follows: fifteen had been hopelessly unsuccessful with their work; nine had registered with the department of law; one was too poor to matriculate; one was in such bad health as to forbid further study; five had gone to other institutions; two had died; and one had no reason to give. The following was the proportion of holders of degrees among the undergraduates who had previously studied elsewhere: in 1909-10, it was six per cent; in 1910-11, slightly in excess of three; in 1911-12, nearly one and a half; and in 1912-13, two and a half. The percentage in the department of graduate studies was naturally very much higher.

XXVI. *Scholarships and Fellowships*

In the account given of previous periods, mention was made of the numerous scholarships and fellowships which were established from time to time during those periods. All these were still in existence after 1904-05, but since they have already been fully described by us as they were founded, we shall not refer to them again.

The first scholarship to be created after the inauguration of the Presidency was the Isabella Merrick Sampson Scholarship, the gift of W. Gordon Merrick, of Glendower, Albemarle county. Its endowment consisted of two bonds for one thousand dollars each. The income of the fund alone was to be used. Its purpose was to afford a support to some deserving young man living in

the county who wished to enter the department of engineering of the University of Virginia with a view to preparing himself to become a member of that profession. The incumbent was to enjoy the income of the fund until his graduation, after traversing the full course. The fund itself was to be held by three trustees, one of whom was to be the President of the University; another, the dean of the engineering department; and the third, a citizen of Albemarle county.

In 1912, a scholarship was founded by the members of the department of law in memory of Daniel Harmon, always a useful member of the Board of Visitors, but conspicuously helpful during the exacting and critical years that followed the great fire in 1895. This scholarship was open to any young Virginian who stood in need of pecuniary assistance and also possessed decided ability and high character. The Herndon Scholarships owed their existence to a bequest of Dr. Cumberland G. Herndon, a medical graduate of the University. They were awarded by the medical faculty after a competitive examination held during the summer vacation. The candidates must submit acceptable proof of their inability to defray the cost of a medical education; and they must also put on record their intention to enter the medical service of the Federal army or navy after graduation. Each of these scholarships provided for the necessary expenses of the holder for the space of four years, which was the length of time now covered by the medical course. The total amount embraced in this bequest was fifteen thousand dollars.

In 1914, Thomas F. Ryan, of New York, but a Virginian by birth, founded ten scholarships, one of which was to be assigned to each of the State's ten Congressional districts; and they were only to be granted to

native Virginians of talent and character who were without financial resources. The Faculty, if they thought proper, were authorized to reduce the number from ten to six, reserving six hundred dollars for each in the place of the three hundred which was to be paid out should the plan of distribution by districts be continued. The latter division seems to have been preferred. The applicant must have been a resident of his district at least two years before he sought the appointment; and he must satisfy the normal entrance requirements. In the beginning, he enjoyed the privilege of remaining four years in any course which he had selected; but the tenure was afterwards restricted to two years. The incumbents of these scholarships were chosen by the Board of Visitors.

Under the will of Edward C. Folkes, two scholarships, in memory of W. C. Folkes, were established about this time for the benefit of young men living in Campbell county. The principal of this bequest,—which was not to be delivered until the death of the testator's daughter,—amounted to \$23,373.33, while the income accruing to each scholarship was in the neighborhood of six hundred dollars. When Colonel James H. Skinner, of Staunton, died in 1898, he bequeathed his estate for the creation and maintenance of as many scholarships as the income would allow, taking the sum of three hundred dollars,—afterwards cut down to two hundred and fifty,—as the maximum amount to be attached to each scholarship. The applicants must put on record their intention of becoming clergymen in the Protestant Episcopal Church. The principal of this bequest aggregated \$41,988.92. As the gift had been made subject to the life interest of Colonel Skinner's sister, it did not fall in until 1913.

In 1914-15, a scholarship valued at one hundred and

forty dollars was established for that session by the Virginia Law Review. During the same session, a small number of scholarships were offered by the University to natives of Virginia, of adequate scholastic equipment, who had been nominated by the Boards of Supervisors of their respective counties. Such matriculates were required to pay only five dollars for the use of field instruments and laboratory apparatus,—a reduction of forty-five dollars as compared with the sum demanded of the regular students. In 1915, the Board of Visitors founded twenty-two scholarships in the College department for the benefit of descendants of Confederate soldiers. These scholarships were awarded on the recommendation of the different divisions of the United Daughters of the Confederacy. A scholarship that insured an annual income of fifty dollars was created by Hollis Rinehart, an influential citizen of Albemarle county; and two years afterwards, the chapter of the Daughters of the American Revolution, domiciled in the same county, founded a similar scholarship, with an annual income of thirty dollars, and a maximum tenure of one year. Its holder must have graduated from the Charlottesville High School, with the highest mark of his class; and he must also be a resident of the town or the county.

In 1905, a fund of five thousand dollars was given by Dr. William C. Rives to establish the William Cabell Rives, Jr., fellowship of history and economics. Dr. Rives was a grandson of the distinguished statesman of the same name who had been a member of that noble company of public-spirited citizens who had sustained the University of Virginia in its early and most trying years.

In 1911, the trustees of the Phelps-Stokes fund deliv-

ered to the Board of Visitors the sum of \$12,500 for the creation of a fellowship in sociology for the thorough study of the negro. This fellowship was expected to yield an annual income of five hundred dollars; and, at the end of four years, was to be filled only by students of the graduate department. The object of the original Phelps-Stokes Fund was to improve the condition of the African race in the South. It appeared to the trustees, according to their own statement, "that the right way to go about this was to get first of all the best information available on the subject, and then to analyze and classify it in a scientific way"; and they decided that the most reliable plan for accomplishing their purpose was "to provide means to enable Southern youth of broad sympathies to make scientific examination of that people." In the summer of 1916, there were issued two volumes which contained the public addresses of recognized authorities on the negro problem who had been invited to the University to speak on that topic; and also the fruits of the investigations by the fellows. These addresses and researches bore upon every phase of the life and character of the Southern blacks.

Two fellowships were created by the will of Dr. Bennet W. Green in 1913. Dr. Green had been a surgeon in the Federal Navy before the War of Secession; had been a zealous supporter of the Confederate cause during that war; had subsequently accumulated a handsome fortune in the Argentine Confederation; and after his return to the United States, had led the life of a retired scholar. He was a man of salient characteristics; was ardently devoted to Virginia, his native State; and was exceptionally loyal to his alma mater. By the terms of his bequest, \$24,000 was set aside for

the support of two fellowships for foreign study, the holders of which were to be required to have graduated both as masters of arts and as doctors of medicine, in the schools of the University of Virginia. If no such doctors were eligible in any one session, because of failure to win the academic degree, then two masters were to be picked out who were anxious to continue their studies in European seats of learning. If two masters of art also were lacking, then two bachelors of laws of the University were to be chosen,—provided that they desired to go abroad for additional preparation for their profession. Preference in making the appointments was to be given, in the first instance, to native Virginians; and in the second, to native Southerners. If no applicants for the fellowships came forward, then the income for that year was to be expended in the purchase of books for the medical department.

In 1915, there were two fellowships, with an annual income of two hundred dollars each, established by the Board of Visitors. Another fellowship proposed at this time seems to have been purely honorary. It was to be conferred by the Board on the recommendation of the President and the Faculty. A bronze medal was to be delivered to this fellow on graduation day at the commencement exercises; and he was to be entitled to write D. S. F. Va. after his name, and also to wear a ribbon dyed in the University colors.

The most important lectureship established after 1904-05 was made possible by a gift of twenty-two thousand dollars from Mrs. Thomas Nelson Page, the income from which was to be used in securing the annual delivery at the University of a series of three discourses by a specialist on some aspect of the depart-

ment of art, science, or politics, in which he enjoyed the reputation of an expert. Each set of discourses was to be marked by such unity of thought and treatment that it could be published in book form. Among the distinguished men who have spoken on this foundation have been Viscount Bryce, President Taft, Professor Gildersleeve, Professor Lounsbury, Professor A. C. Coolidge, and President Charles W. Eliot. A prize annually presented by the Virginia Chapter of the Colonial Dames of America was granted to the author of the most meritorious essay on some subject descriptive of the history or literature of Colonial Virginia. A second prize was established by Mrs. Susan Colston Blackford, of Lynchburg, in memory of her husband, the distinguished lawyer, Charles Minor Blackford. This prize,—amounting to fifty dollars annually in cash,—was each year awarded to that student in the department of law who had written the best dissertation upon some legal or sociological topic.

XXVII. *Professional Departments — Law*

In 1904–05,—the initial session of the Presidency,—the applicant for enrolment in the first year of the law course, unless a special student, was called upon to submit at least one of the following testimonials as the condition of admission: the diploma of graduation in some institution of collegiate rank, or a certificate of good standing in the classes of such an institution; or a diploma of graduation in a public or private high school of reputation, or a certificate of equivalent value from its principal; or a written statement that he had passed the entrance examinations of the University successfully. Of the twelve units required in 1907–08, three were in English, three in mathematics, and two in history. The

remainder were electives. No credit for advanced standing was allowed on the basis of study done elsewhere previous to matriculation.

By 1910-11, some changes in these requirements for admission had been made: the high school granting a certificate must be on the accredited list; and the receiver of the certificate must have graduated in a four-year course.

With the lapse of time, the special and conditioned students,—who were admitted without the privileges of the regular members of the class,—became a cause of uneasiness and dissatisfaction. In 1914-16, at least sixteen per cent. of the enrolment consisted of special students; and of these it was asserted that a considerable proportion were incorrigible idlers who had entered simply to be able to say in the future that “they had been college men.” In a registration, during one year, of forty-three special students, not more than six or eight were really qualified to pursue the study of law; and the proportion for the conditioned students at this time was substantially the same. The existence of the evil was so damaging that the dean of the department, Professor Lile, recommended that, after the session of 1915-16, all conditioned students should be debarred from entrance; that no special student under twenty-three years of age should be admitted, and those above that age only by the action of the law faculty, after submitting to a written examination; and that no irregular student should be permitted to become a candidate for the degree unless he had qualified as a regular student at the end of his first year, and shown, by the success of his previous diligence, that he was entitled to the privilege.

By 1909-10, the general course was so spread out as

to require three sessions to traverse it; and it was so arranged as to fit, not only these three sessions, but the three terms of each session. It had been enlarged by the expansion of existing subjects, and by the addition of subjects not previously offered. This allowed of the introduction of numerous elective topics. The entire course now embraced one thousand lecture periods or units; and of these, as many as four hundred were elective. This new system made it possible for the student to select his subjects in harmony with his prospective need, — thus, if he had matriculated from another State, he was at liberty to omit the statutory law from the circle of his choice, and substitute another topic that would be more useful to him in his future practice. One consequence of this expansion in the general course was to increase the great reputation which the department had always enjoyed. As time passed on, the disposition was to convert the elective studies into obligatory studies, — after 1915–16, the only electives permissible were Roman law, admiralty, and damages. A choice could also be made between Virginia pleading and code pleading.¹

¹ The following was the division of studies arranged for 1917–18, but which was interrupted by the war:

First year, first term: Lile,—Study of Cases, Legal Bibliography and Brief Making, Interpretation of Statutes; Graves,—Contracts; Dobie,—Criminal Law; Paul,—Forensic Debating; Eager,—Domestic Relations. Second term: Graves,—Torts; Dobie,—Bailments and Carriers; Eager,—Agency. Third term: Lile,—Negotiable Paper; Minor,—International Law; Dobie,—Sales; Eager,—Insurance.

Second year, first term: Lile,—Equity Jurisprudence; Graves,—Common Law Pleading; Minor,—Real Property, begun. Second term: Lile,—Private Corporations; Graves,—Pleading in Virginia; Minor,—Real Property, concluded, Constitutional Law begun; Eager,—Admiralty; Dobie,—Code Pleading. Third term: Eager,—Practice; Minor,—Constitutional Law, concluded; Dobie,—Taxation.

Third year, first term: Minor,—Criminal Procedure; Dobie,—Wills and Administration, Roman Law; Eager,—Bankruptcy and Partnership. Second term: Lile,—Equity Procedure; Minor,—Conflict of Laws; Dobie,—Federal Jurisprudence and Procedure; Eager,—Damages.

The enlargement of old subjects, and the addition of new, made it imperative to increase the number of teachers associated with the department. When Professor Lile was granted a leave of absence during the session of 1907-08, his place was temporarily taken by Armistead M. Dobie, who was afterwards assigned to a full professorship. By 1913-14, there were four full professors,—Graves, Lile, Minor and Dobie,—and one adjunct professor of law, Eager, and one adjunct professor of public speaking, Paul. Definite tasks had, for some time, been performed by assistants, who, though receiving small salaries, considered the compensation satisfactory, since the prestige of the position led to subsequent connections with large practitioners or to junior partnerships. It was through them that a system of daily quizzes was maintained, which proved to be highly beneficial in its results.

The introduction of the course in public speaking had been recommended in 1910 by the law faculty. The ground covered by this course embraced the principles of argumentation and debating, and also the methods of delivery. The students, in groups of four, discussed legal and forensic questions in the presence of the general class. This course was supplemented by Professor Lile's lectures on brief-making. In addition to the debates under Professor Paul, there was, during many years, a law debating society. The attendance in this society had been voluntary, although, at one time, every candidate for the degree of bachelor of law had been required to argue at least one case before this body while under the presidency of a member of the law faculty. A debate open to all was permissible afterwards.

Third term: Lile,—Public Corporations, Legal Ethics, Preparation of Cases and Practice of the Law; Graves,—Evidence.

During the session of 1907-08, the General Assembly appropriated sixty-five thousand dollars for the erection and proper equipment of a law building at the University of Virginia. The first site that was considered for its location was one in the vicinity of the present post-office; but the final choice fell upon the slope lying east of Dawson's Row. The turf there was broken for the foundations of the edifice in the spring of 1909; it was completed in January, 1911; but was not used until the beginning of the next session. Its total cost reached the sum of \$64,560.28.¹ The structure may be said to consist of a central mass with two subordinate wings; its entire front is accentuated by a line of six Doric columns; and it stands two stories in height. It was very appropriately named in honor of Professor John B. Minor.

On the upper floor of this building, the books of the department were deposited. It was estimated, that, during the long interval between 1826 and 1895, the Board of Visitors had not appropriated altogether for the law library as much as one thousand dollars. Beginning in 1895, that body, from time to time, provided sums sufficient to increase the number of volumes to a point that rendered them, by 1904-05, a very fair nucleus for a really imposing collection. As we have seen, these books had been, for many years, stored in the basement of the Rotunda,—a situation encompassed with many inconveniences. By 1908-09, nearly ten thousand volumes had been accumulated. During this session, a notable addition was made to the collection by Professor James Barr Ames, of the Harvard Law School, in the shape of three hundred and fifty volumes of the English Law Reports, which brought the issue fully up

¹ In March, 1911, Professor Lile estimated that the "interior furnishings," up to that time, had entailed an outlay of \$10,000.

to date. By 1909-10, the law library was in possession of a practically complete set of all the State reports in spite of their heavy cost. Those of Delaware, for instance, had required an outlay of twenty-five dollars per volume.

Through the generosity of W. W. Fuller, an alumnus who had won distinction and fortune in the practice of law, the library received a fund of ten thousand dollars, the income of which was to be devoted to the purchase of additional books. During the session of 1910-11, an accession was obtained through the bequest of Judge Lambert Tree, another alumnus who had risen to eminence in the same profession. He left the larger part of his collection of law books to the law library.

A set of Maryland reports was also received from Joseph Wilmer, a brother of the late Skipwith Wilmer, of the Baltimore bar. By this time, the collection of the decisions of the American and English courts of last resort was substantially without a gap. The library, in 1913-14, contained about 12,700 volumes, and it was in the care of a thoroughly competent librarian, Miss Lipop, and her assistant. By 1916-17, the number of volumes had increased to fourteen thousand.

How many students attended the classes of the department of law during the years of the Ninth Period? In the course of 1904-05, about two hundred registered; during the session of 1908-09, approximately two hundred and ninety-four; but, in 1910-11, the number sank to one hundred and ninety. This decline followed the adoption of the three-year course. It could not be told until the session of 1913-14 whether this shrinkage would be permanent, for it was not until then that the new rule was to come into full operation. The upshot of the attendance was, at that time, encouraging,—the

number of students was two hundred and seventy; but, in 1915-16, it fell to two hundred and fifty-one; in 1916-17, to two hundred and thirty-five; and in 1917-18, to ninety-nine. Only eighty members of the several classes were really present. This remarkable decline was due to the pressure of the war, which made, from the beginning, the heaviest draft upon the schools in which were enrolled the young men of mature years.

The number of degrees of bachelor of laws won during the Ninth Period by members of the department ranged from fifty in 1904-05 to seventy-four in 1908-09; and fell off from ninety-six in 1909-10 to fifty-two in 1914-15. In 1910-11, there were only fifteen graduates; but this was attributable to the extension of the course.

So thorough was the preparation which the graduates received for their future profession that Dean Lile was able to declare in his report to the President in March, 1910, that, since the adoption in Virginia, in 1896, of the rule that all applicants for a license must be examined by the Supreme Court of Appeals, there had been proportionately only a small number of failures to meet that test among the winners of the University's law diploma; indeed, that as many as ninety per cent. of the students who had carried off the coveted degree had passed successfully those exacting examinations for admission to the bar.

Another proof of the superior character of the tuition was to be found in the excellence of the journal issued by the law department. In June, 1913, the Board of Visitors appropriated one thousand dollars for the support of this periodical, which was to make its first appearance in the following autumn, under the direction of an editorial board of twenty-five students chosen on a scholarship basis from among the members of the junior,

intermediate, and senior classes. Eight numbers were to be published annually. The law faculty was to serve only in an advisory capacity. This review was established as planned, and soon ranked with similar reviews issued by the law departments of Princeton, Harvard, and Yale Universities. During the session of 1916-17, in a lecture on the Barbour-Page foundation, Dean Wigmore referred to it as one of the best of its kind published in the United States.

XXVIII. *Professional Departments — Medicine*

During many years following the close of the war between the States, as we have seen, the medical school of the University of Virginia was satisfied to restrict itself to the methods of didactic teaching. The instructors, outside the hall of the demonstrator of anatomy, relied only on the lecture and text-book; and the information thus acquired by the student during the session was clarified and confirmed by written examinations at its end. The reputation of the school rested chiefly on the record made before army and navy boards, whose touchstone of competence consisted alone of a series of questions in writing. During that period, there were no oral interrogatories, and no laboratory or hospital tests.

By the beginning of the Ninth Period, 1904, a new spirit had come to govern medical education everywhere. Its influence was reflected (1) in the increase in the amount of preparation required of prospective medical students; (2) in the employment of the laboratory as a method of imparting expert knowledge; and (3) in the far greater prominence accorded to practical research. For some years, this spirit had made little impression upon the didactic system prevailing at the University of

Virginia, but, in time, it was strongly felt there also, through the convictions of younger professors who had been trained to more modern methods than their predecessors. The earliest indications of this fact in practical application were the use of out-patient clinics, the introduction of classes in histology, embryology, bacteriology, pathology, and clinical diagnosis, and the erection of a hospital in part. The foremost upholders of these new methods were Barringer, Christian, Dabney, Tuttle, Flippin, and the younger Davis. The demonstrators of anatomy, like the elder Davis and Towles, had, in their department, long anticipated the coming revolution, and in doing so, had won a reputation which extended far beyond the precincts. But the teaching force and equipment continued inadequate, and the University was, during all this time, unable to meet all the needs of the situation. Nevertheless, it had become imperative that the institution should do so if it was to maintain a respectable position in the profession. Instead of examining boards being satisfied now, as formerly, to submit a series of written questions, they called upon all applicants to prove their knowledge to be practical; and this was done by requiring them to answer oral questions or to do test work in laboratory or hospital. It was generally admitted that the deductive system by itself left the student pitifully weak along practical lines.

When the Ninth Period began in 1904, the modern aim of the department was only illustrated conspicuously, though not exclusively, in those special branches of work which we have enumerated, and which were all too few as we have seen. Professor Barringer, in a formal report to the President in 1904-05, said that "there were but three strong points in favor of our school of medicine: (1) its medical professors, removed

from the commercialism of city life, taught their subjects like the professors of Latin, history, and so on; (2) the faculty work is best done in an educational atmosphere,—here we have it to perfection; (3) our hospital, small as it is, is yet under our sole conduct, and close at hand, and is usable to its full extent. Medicine is becoming each year more of a science and less of an art. While the art demands the clinical material of the city, the science demands only the habits and spirits of investigation.”

It was acknowledged, at this time, that the graduates were particularly deficient in training in physical diagnosis, in pathology, in clinical microscopy, and in materia medica. The general need of reorganization along more modern lines was fully grasped by the new President very soon after his inauguration; and one of the first great tasks which enlisted his attention was to bring about its realization. The principal demands were for (1) a more cultured preparation for the study of medicine; (2) fully equipped laboratories in the fundamental medical sciences, under the direction of thoroughly educated instructors; (3) the creation of a larger teaching hospital, in which students in their third and fourth years would have an opportunity to observe in person phenomena of disease. This was to be done at the bedside, under the guidance of professors whose only duty would be to instruct them.

Who was the man most competent to build up the department along these broad, salient lines? The President's choice fell upon Richard H. Whitehead, then occupying a chair in the University of North Carolina. He had graduated at the University of Virginia in 1886, having preferred to enter its didactic school of medicine rather than some school elsewhere, in which the tuition

was given by men engaged in actual practice. After assuming, in 1905, general charge of the department, as the dean of its faculty, his first important policy was to require that, from the session beginning September, 1907, no student should be admitted to the school who had not received a year of laboratory training in the three fundamentals of medicine in some institution of collegiate rank. His second was to establish properly equipped laboratories, under the direction of experts, who had been appointed after a careful appraisalment of their fitness. His third was to reorganize the hospital for the purpose of teaching students as its principal form of usefulness.

The history of the medical department during the Ninth Period is a history of the development of this combination of policies. We propose to treat each in turn in its various ramifications. Let us consider first the requirements for admission adopted from time to time. In the interval between 1904 and 1906, the American Medical Association undertook in earnest to elevate the character and condition of medical education in the United States. That body declared it to be essential that there should be first an improvement in the preliminary education of the prospective student of medicine. This improvement,—in accord with the demand of the Association,—was, in 1904, considered to be evidenced by the completion of a four-year high school course, and afterwards, in 1906, by an additional year of college work in the basic sciences. The University of Virginia, beginning with 1907–08, required that every applicant for admission to the first year of its medical department should submit the diploma of a recognized institution of collegiate rank or a certificate of good standing given by the like seat of learning; or the diploma of a high school offering at least a three-year

course, or the certificate of an accredited school offering an equivalent course. In addition, he must have completed at the University the college courses in physics, general chemistry, and biology, or the same courses in some other institution of reputation.

Under the operation of the various entrance requirements, during a period of four years, the enrolment shrank from one hundred and thirty-six students to seventy-eight; but, in the meanwhile, as we shall see, the means of restoring the balance were being created by the establishment of new laboratories, the appointment of expert teachers, and the extension of hospital facilities. How necessary for the high character of the Medical School these admission requirements were, is demonstrated by the report of the dean for 1906-07,—the year before they went into effect. "A little more than fifty per cent. of the medical classes this year," he said, "had devoted from one to four years to collegiate education before beginning medicine. The class contains all degrees of quality, from mature, intelligent, trained men, at one extreme, to raw, untrained boys, at the other." It was expected that pupils of the latter type would be unable to obtain entrance at the beginning of the next session; and this anticipation, as already stated, proved to be correct. It was to equip the raw and untrained that the college course especially was laid off with such care and discrimination. Not less than thirty-five per cent. of the students in the medical department in 1908-09 had won the degree of master of arts or bachelor of arts. The rule was based on two facts: (1) it was impossible to impart a proper knowledge of modern medicine to an unripe and undisciplined mind; and (2) it had been observed that the young men who had received instruction in those naturalistic sciences which were funda-

mental to medicine exhibited the most interest, and were the most successful, in the medical course.

By March, 1915, Dean Whitehead concluded that the department had won such a high position that it would be safe to increase the entrance requirements to two years of college work. He based his recommendation on two reasons: (1) the average student found it difficult to acquire in one year the necessary training in chemistry, physics, and biology, and in those modern languages which had been added to the course; and (2) the laws of numerous States already prescribed two years. By 1916-17, the requirements for admission called for proof of two years of college work, covering, among other subjects, always English, mathematics, inorganic chemistry, physics, biology, and either the German or the French tongue. This work was to follow the completion of a four-year course in a high school. The student who was able, on entering the medical department, to secure an advanced standing, was enrolled in the classes of the second, third, or fourth year. To accomplish this, he had, not only to show that he had satisfied all the general requirements for entrance into the department, but also to submit a certificate from an accredited school of medicine in proof that he had done work equivalent to the grade of at least eighty per cent. in each subject for which he was asking credit. The like privilege for one year was allowed the holder of the degree of bachelor of arts or science whose academic course had included medical subjects equal in quality and volume to those of the first year in the medical course. This regulation was already in operation in 1905-06; and seems to have continued in force during succeeding sessions.

In 1904-05, the medical courses which had to be completed by the candidate for the degree of doctor of medi-

cine extended over four years. He was only exempted, as already stated, from so prolonged a stay if he had been successful in obtaining advanced standing by the required testimonials which relieved him of the first, second, or third year, as the case might be.

The division of studies in force in 1905-06 was as follows: during the first session, instruction was given in elementary biology, chemistry, practical physics, practical chemistry, medical biology,—which embraced physiological anatomy, normal histology and embryology,—and descriptive anatomy; during the second session, in physiology, bacteriology, general pathology, special pathology, descriptive anatomy and regional anatomy; during the third session, in obstetrics, materia medica, surgery, clinical diagnosis, and dispensary clinics; and during the fourth session, in practice of medicine, therapeutics, hygiene, clinical surgery, derminology, diseases of eye, ear, and nose, gynecology, medical jurisprudence, diseases of children, and dispensary and hospital clinic.

The largest proportion of the course of the first year was accompanied, at this time, by practical work in the laboratory. This condition was true, in almost equal measure, of the course of the second year. During the third year,—and especially during the fourth,—the attention of the student was very much occupied with practical clinical instruction. Some account of the character of this supplementary work will be given on a later page.

By 1906-07, the dean of the department was able to say in his annual report that “an excellent beginning had been made towards the full realization of a well-rounded modern school.” “We only lack now,” he added, sufficient motive power,—money.” During this session, the chair of anatomy was separated from the

chair of surgery, and the chair of practice of medicine from the chair of pathology. With the subsequent introduction of a course in pharmacology, Professor Whitehead declared that the department had been completely reorganized in the sense "that all the more important branches of medical science were represented in its courses on a basis that permitted of their going forward, should the condition of the future be favorable to them."

By 1907-08, the division of subjects was as follows: during the first session, the instruction was limited to normal histology and embryology, anatomy, anatomy of the nervous system, and physiological chemistry; during the second, to physiology, bacteriology, pathology, anatomy, pharmacology, and physical diagnosis; during the third, to obstetrics, materia medica, practice of medicine, surgery, gynecology, clinical diagnosis, and clinics; and during the fourth to neurology, pediatrics, therapeutics, hygiene, surgery, dermatology, gynecology, medical jurisprudence, diseases of eye, ear, nose, and throat, and clinics. This division and assignment to successive sessions followed a logical scheme: the first and second years were occupied with the study of those sciences which were fundamental to the subjects of the remaining two years. These latter subjects were the strictly professional ones. They had been begun in the second year. Both in the third and fourth years, particular attention was still given to clinical instruction.

In March, 1909, as the result of a movement which had been inaugurated by the President of the University in the previous autumn, at the suggestion of Dr. Rawley Martin, a distinguished physician of the city of Lynchburg, the Board of Visitors authorized the establishment of a series of courses for the practical teaching and

demonstration of sanitary engineering, the science of public health, and other topics which related to the training of public health officers. The first series of lectures formed a part of the summer course in 1909, and embraced the subjects of sewerage, filth disease, malaria, ventilation, plumbing, vital statistics, and the like. An advanced course in physiology was now added for the benefit of the fourth-year students who had completed the lower courses and wished to specialize in the science.

XXIX. *Professional Departments — Medicine,*
Continued

We have already referred incidentally to the stress laid upon the laboratory after the reorganization of the medical department. The aim which the new dean kept in view from the first hour of his induction into office was to bring the laboratory studies up to the minimum standard set for those subjects by the Association of American Colleges, and approved by the American Medical Association and the Association of the State Licensing Boards. At the time of his appointment, the department was crippled in this direction by the following deficiencies: (1) there was practically no laboratory work undertaken in the fundamental science of chemistry,—it was necessary that the medical student should have open to him courses in the methods of qualitative analysis, in toxicology, and in physiological chemistry; (2) there was no instruction at all in the methods of experimental physiology. The hours assigned to bacteriology were short of the minimum by at least fifty per cent., and of the requirement of a really great school by a much wider gap still.

By the beginning of the session of 1907-08, these

particular defects had been at least partially cured. The Massie house, at the north end of West Range, had, by that date, been remodeled inside,—one section had been converted into a laboratory for physiological chemistry; and another section into a laboratory for experimental physiology. There was reserved in the basement a room for experimental practice of medicine on animals. The former Ross dwelling-house was now used for storerooms, offices, and small laboratories, while the Ross boarding-house was divided into two laboratories,—the one occupying the upper floor was assigned to the professor of general chemistry for undergraduates; the one occupying the lower was used not only for the like purpose but also as a lecture room. Before the close of the session of 1908–09, the number of laboratories had been increased threefold at least. The work now done therein was for the illumination of the fundamental subjects of organic chemistry, gross anatomy, histology and embryology, bacteriology, pathology, physiological chemistry, physiology, pharmacology, and materia medica.

In the absence of funds with which to erect new laboratory buildings, old structures were renovated and equipped with apparatus for teaching, and to a less extent, for original investigation. The medical student gained through these laboratories a large part of his knowledge at first hand and by his own exertion. He, by the same means, acquired confidence in himself,—a state of mind imperative for successful practice afterwards.

President Alderman, in an address delivered, in 1917, before the Medical Association of Virginia and North Carolina, affirmed that “the University of Virginia, during the previous six years, had expended ap-

proximately six hundred thousand dollars in multiplying its scientific laboratories and their equipment ten-fold, increasing its instructorial staff, and, above all, developing the advantages of its own hospital to the point where fifteen hundred cases of disease pass through it yearly, and where, in surgery, its service for the students enrolled equals the best in America." Let us now inquire into the history of this beneficent institution since 1904-05.

The hospital was designed and conducted as a teaching hospital, and was so constructed as to allow of indefinite expansion. In 1906, the edifice consisted of an administration building and one completed wing, with a second wing in the process of erection. There was now accommodation for fifty patients; and fifty more could be taken in when the new wing had been finished. The clinical work at this time was carried on by the professors of the practice of medicine, general surgery, abdominal surgery and gynecology, and obstetrics. The medical class was first divided into medical and surgical groups, and then subdivided into sections, which were distributed through the four wards,—two of which were reserved for white people and two for colored. Each clinical patient was assigned to two students, under the criticism and advice of the physician-in-chief; and they assisted at the operation, if surgical treatment was called for. In the central building, there were an amphitheatre, private operating rooms, and x-ray rooms, while in the basement of the north wing was situated a fully equipped clinical laboratory.

During 1914-16, steps were taken to erect an additional wing to the hospital. The money required for this purpose was donated by the town of Charlottesville and the County of Albemarle,—which together

subscribed the sum of twenty-one thousand dollars,—and Mr. Charles Steele, of New York City. This new wing was occupied in the summer of 1916; and it gave the hospital a capacity of two hundred beds. There were now six wards,—two of which were for the use of the colored people,—and forty private rooms.

The out-patient department, by this time, had been made an integral part of the hospital itself. It had formerly been housed in the old dispensary, but in the fall of 1916, it was transferred to the first floor of the new wing of the hospital. The dispensary had been in charge of an advanced medical student, who, together with other students of the same grade, responded to calls in the neighborhood, in addition to prescribing for persons who came to the building. One or two of the medical professors met their regular classes at the dispensary; and under their guidance, diagnostic and pathological examinations of patients were made by the members.

By 1910–11, the number of cases treated at the hospital had increased to fifteen hundred annually. Of the 1565 patients admitted between July 1, 1910, and July 1, 1911, six hundred and twenty-two were charged no fee; six hundred and sixteen paid in part; and the remainder paid in full. During this interval, over one thousand surgical operations took place. There were for the fiscal year ending July 1, 1912, 1781 patients; for the fiscal year ending July 1, 1914, 2133. Since the first of July, 1908, the number had trebled. At the close of the fiscal year of 1916–17, the number of patients had grown to 3200. In other words, it had nearly quintupled. Of the 2313 cases treated in the fiscal year of 1914–15, 1348 were gratuitous. In consequence of these services to individual health without pecuniary return, the hospital

added very sensibly to the expenses of the University; indeed, the outlay ran ahead of the income to such a degree that there was always a deficit on the annual operations of this section of the medical department. For the fiscal year ending July 10, 1910, this deficit amounted to nearly nine thousand dollars, even after the Board of Visitors had advanced the sum of eight thousand. Beginning with the session of 1910-11, the General Assembly made an annual appropriation of ten thousand dollars for the benefit of the hospital, but this failed to balance the annual accounts,—during that year, the expenses rose to \$40,183.98, while the income did not exceed \$21,927.65. In 1912-13, the total expenses,—exclusive of the salaries of the professors,—amounted to \$26,909.71; the receipts to \$15,960.67. From \$42,579.21 in 1913-14, the expenses swelled to \$90,379.08 in 1916-17; the income from \$42,769.09 to \$79,134.28.

A rise in prices of all articles used in the hospital was now perceptible. The cost of maintaining a patient was \$1.21 per diem in 1914-15 as compared with \$1.03 in 1913-14; and the advance grew only more rapid after war was precipitated in Europe.

At the beginning of the Ninth Period, there were four full professors whose instruction was restricted to the courses of the medical department; and in addition to these, there were two adjunct professors, a demonstrator, and three assistants. Of the academic faculty, three full professors and one adjunct were called upon to devote a portion of their time to lectures on purely medical topics. Professor Whitehead, in addition to the deanship of the department, occupied the chair of anatomy. Dr. W. M. Randolph was the adjunct professor of surgery. When a separate chair of bacteriology and pathology was established in 1906-07, Professor C. H. Bunting was

chosen the incumbent. Dr. Theodore Hough who had previously been associated with the famous Institute of Technology in Boston, was, during the same session, appointed to the separate school of physiology, and afterwards became the dean of the department of medicine following the death of Professor Whitehead. During his first year, his time was given up altogether to the construction and equipment of the new laboratories. Dr. William D. Macon was elected to fill the chair of obstetrics. Dr. Stephen H. Watts followed Dr. Buckmaster as professor of surgery; and, as director of the hospital, assumed general charge of that section of the department, while Dr. H. B. Stone became the adjunct professor of general surgery and gynecology, to be succeeded by Dr. William H. Goodwin. Dr. James C. Flippin was appointed to the chair of clinical medicine and therapeutics after the retirement of Professor Barringer. Simultaneously, Dr. H. S. Hedges became professor of the diseases of the eye, ear, nose, and throat. Subsequently, this professorship was divided and Dr. Robert F. Compton delivered the lectures on a section of the original course. Dr. H. T. Marshall succeeded Dr. Bunting in the chair of pathology and bacteriology, with Dr. C. R. Meloy as the adjunct professor.

In 1910-11, Dr. H. E. Jordan, the associate professor of anatomy, was promoted to the full professorship of histology and embryology, a section of that school. Dr. John A. E. Eyster was the first exclusive teacher of pharmacology and materia medica, in which position he was followed by Dr. Jas. A. Waddell, in 1912. Dr. Joseph H. Kastle was the successor of Professor Mallet in the chair of medicine, and, in turn, was succeeded by Dr. Graham Edgar. Dr. Charles M. Byrnes was, for some time, the incumbent of the adjunct professorship of anat-

omy and neurology, and Dr. John H. Neff was the instructor in surgery. For a period, the administrative work of the hospital was in charge of Dr. M. R. Pratt. A vacancy in the chair of gross anatomy and neurology was filled by the appointment of Dr. Robert B. Bean.

During the sessions of 1909–10, 1910–11, and 1911–12, the number of first-year matriculates in the medical department increased so rapidly that it was considered advisable to reduce that enrolment thereafter to thirty-six new students, as this was the largest number which could be properly provided for with the then existing staff of teachers and laboratory facilities. In 1915–16 eighteen qualified applicants had to be denied admission; and it was expected that, at the beginning of the ensuing year, as many as thirty-five would have to be turned away, as there were, at that time, sixty students in the college department preparing for the medical course of the first year. The following table indicates the number of young men who attended the lectures between 1907–08 and 1917–18 inclusive, and also the number who won the degree of doctor of medicine in the course of the interval between 1907–08 and 1915–16 exclusive:

	1907–08	1908–09	1909–10	1910–11	1911–12	1912–13
Number of students . . .	107	88	89	79	84	91
Number of graduates .	22	18	31	20	12	14

	1913–14	1914–15	1915–16	1916–17	1917–18
Number of students	104	108	121	108	100
Number of graduates	17	21			

The temporary falling off after 1907–08 was attributable to the adoption of the new requirements for admission. Down to 1914 inclusive, 6214 students had matriculated in the department of medicine since 1825. Of this number, 2019 had received the diploma of doctor of medicine. One hundred and sixty-eight had entered the

medical corps of the army and navy and the marine hospital service.

About 1912-13, the committee on medical education of the American Medical Association, having thoroughly inspected all the medical schools then in operation in the United States, registered the medical department of the University of Virginia in class A, a primacy which was granted to but twenty-two in a very long list. The only Southern institutions admitted to this star roll, besides the University of Virginia, were the Tulane University, the University of Texas, and the Johns Hopkins University.

Early in the session of 1913-14, the Board of Visitors were informed that, should the medical department of the University of Virginia and the Medical College of Virginia in Richmond agree to consolidate,—the Medical College to take over the University medical department,—a large endowment could be obtained for the united schools. A committee reported to the Board in January, 1914, the upshot of their investigation, which was unfavorable to the acquisition of the endowment; and after the Board had weighed other adverse information bearing on the question of consolidation, they adjourned without further action; and ultimately the original proposal was permanently dismissed from discussion.

xxx. *Professional Departments — Engineering*

The requirements which had to be met by the applicant for admission to the department of engineering were practically the same as those demanded of the applicant seeking entrance to the medical department. If his object was simply to be enrolled in the first-year course, he must present the diploma of a reputable institution of collegiate rank; or a certificate of a well known school of

engineering; or the diploma of graduation in a high school, either public or private; or an equivalent personal certificate from the principal of such a school. If he was unable to show such testimonials, yet was able to pass satisfactorily the general entrance examinations, he was admitted to the department without further conditions. Should he wish to obtain the advantage of advanced standing, he had only to submit a certificate from a respectable institution of learning which should indicate that he had covered all the courses for which he was asking credit. There was an allowance of credit also for engineering work done in the summer school of the University of Virginia or any other University.

The most salient features of the engineering course at the beginning of the Ninth Period, 1904, were (1) the length of time given up to pure and mixed mathematics; (2) the requirement that, at the end of the lecture, the student should work out on the blackboard problems resembling those which he would have to solve in professional life; and (3) the additional requirement, that, instead of copying from tracings, he should cut out models from his own designs. He was taught to illustrate the principles emphasized in the lectures by designs reduced to plates. This plate system was thought to be a progressive step in imparting that branch of technical education.

Five general lines of study were pursued in the engineering department at this time simultaneously: (1) in the lecture-room, the fundamental subjects were covered, such as pure mathematics, mechanics, physics, chemistry, mineralogy, geology, and the applied sciences; (2) in the drafting-room, the technique of the graphic art and the methods of the graphical analysis were mastered; (3) in the laboratory, the ability to measure lengths, weigh

masses, time events, test the strength of materials, and the like, was acquired; (4) in the surveying field, lengths, angles, heights, depths, and velocities were determined; (5) in the shop, exactness and accuracy in measurements, skill in workmanship, and care in execution, were learned.

The successive courses included in the preceding general lines of study were as follows: (1) required courses,—in the first year, these were directed to the mastery of the art of technical drawing, field work, and laboratory testing; and in the second, to the acquisition of such knowledge as would constitute an introduction to technical mechanics; (2) elective courses,—these began in the third year of residence, and continued through the fourth and final year; they included courses in all the three branches of engineering, civil, mechanical, and electrical; (3) laboratory courses,—these, which were protracted throughout the four years, consisted of a series of tests of different materials; (4) drafting courses; and finally, (5) work in shop and field. All these courses were taught by the joint use of text-book and lecture; they were made objective by parallel practice in the drafting-room, the shop, the laboratory, and the field; and they were enforced by daily oral examinations, frequent written reviews, copious exercises in drafting, and abundant illustration by means of specimens and experiments.

After the reorganization,—which went into full operation with the session of 1908–09,—the extent of the technical instruction required of each candidate for a degree was increased over one-third. Instead of two years given up to technical courses in each branch of engineering, three years were the number adopted. Every student was introduced to his strictly professional studies at the beginning of his second year instead of his third, as

formerly; and this contact was prolonged down to the date of his graduation. Previously, the first and second years had been limited to the fundamentals of education in the applied sciences; and because of these fundamentals, each engineering student had been required to take the courses of these two years regardless of the branch which he intended to pursue specially during the third and fourth years. Each one, in his graduating year, about this time, was called upon to submit to the dean of the department some theme for independent study suited to the particular course which he was following.

In 1907, at the request of the engineering faculty, Professor T. L. Watson, the new incumbent of the chair of geology, delivered a series of specialized lectures,—accompanied by laboratory and field work,—on engineering geology, economic geology, and petrography; and in 1908–09, Professor R. M. Bird, of the chemical faculty, gave instruction in chemical engineering.

Ultimately, the four years of the courses in engineering were divided formally into the freshman year, the sophomore year, the junior year, and the senior year; and in each course, a definite set of studies were assigned to each year. By 1912, there had been an important rearrangement of the latter. The freshman class received lessons in mechanical drawing, elementary machine construction, and plane surveying. Associated with these were practical courses in the drafting-room, the workshop, the machine-shop, and the field. All the members of the department were required to pursue these introductory studies. With the sophomore year, the specializing began in civil, electrical, and mechanical engineering. A series of general courses in mathematics, physics, chemistry, and geology were also taught simultaneously.

The defective side of the instruction in engineering

now, as formerly, lay in engineering practice. The remoteness from great industrial plants abbreviated the number of visits to important engineering works, owing to the expense of the journey and the length of time taken up. There were, however, in the vicinity of Charlottesville several foundries, machine-shops, and railway-shops which proved highly useful. The courses were strong in the emphasis that was laid on the fundamental sciences, and in the influences brought to bear to encourage independence and resourcefulness in the student. On the other hand, it was thought that they were weakened by the failure to require, as one of the conditions of admission, work in at least the physical and chemical laboratory; and also by the absence of facilities for a humanistic training. But in spite of these shortcomings, the department continued to make satisfactory progress. "The last decade," said Dean Thornton, in 1916-17, "has seen a general advance in the work of instruction. The laboratory equipment has been improved and enlarged. Modern text-books have been introduced. The most vital force of our growth has been the laboratory teaching. In strength of materials, in cement testing, in roads material testing, in hydraulics, in steam engineering, in general testing, in experimental study of engines and boilers, and in all the branches of electrical engineering, there has been a steady improvement in the apparatus and methods of study."

After the World War began, the engineering faculty adopted measures to broaden the curriculum of the department. By omitting certain courses of a post-graduate nature, and by condensing others, room was obtained for a new group of studies, including English, general economics, cost accounting, specifications, contracts, and

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engineering economics. These were now required of the candidates for all the engineering degrees.

In 1904-05, there were eighty-eight students enrolled in the different sections of the general department. The attendance in 1909-10 was divided into two nearly equal groups, one of which was specializing in civil and mining engineering, and the other in electrical and mechanical. There were, at this time, one hundred and eight students present in all these classes; and there were one hundred and thirty-three in 1916-17,—the session that saw the entrance of the United States into the great world conflict. The impression, however, prevailed that this department, throughout the Ninth Period, ought to have drawn to its lecture-halls a larger number of matriculates, for, in no other, was the instruction more faithful, more thorough, and more modern than in this. The only explanation that could be offered for the comparative paucity of students was that the University of Virginia was known primarily as an institution in which the humanities held by far the most conspicuous place in the general esteem.

Beginning with the graduating class of June, 1904, and ending with that of June, 1917, there were thirty-nine young men who had received the diploma of electrical engineer, while, during the interval between June, 1906, and June, 1917, there were sixty-one who had received the diploma of civil engineer. The diploma of mechanical engineer, on the other hand, had, between June, 1904 and June, 1917, been won by only twenty-nine.

The expansion in the courses and facilities of the department was indirectly demonstrated by the increase in the membership of its faculty. There were, in 1904-05, thirteen persons employed in instructing its different

classes; in 1905-06, sixteen; in 1906-07, twenty-three. This list included the professors of physics, chemistry, analytical chemistry, and geology, as well as the professors of mathematics and applied mathematics. The names of the men so employed have been already mentioned. In 1910-11, W. S. Rodman was adjunct professor of electrical engineering, and Charles Hancock, associate professor of mechanical engineering. There were, in 1914, nine assistants. The two senior professors were still William M. Thornton and John Lloyd Newcomb. Another useful teacher, during many years, was Jared S. Lapham. "No greater improvement in the discipline of applied science at the University of Virginia has ever been made," said Professor Thornton, "than when all the laboratory work,—in strength of materials, hydraulics, steam-engines, gas-engines, fuels, lubricants, road materials, etc., introduced by the several professors as the needs of their specialties demanded, and continued under their individual direction,—was grouped under the one title of experimental engineering, and, in 1913, put in the hands of Jared S. Lapham."

XXXI. *Professional Departments — Education*

In anticipation of the establishment of a practical School of Education, at the University of Virginia, President Alderman drew up a scheme for such a school, in the light of his own experience and observation, and of the recorded convictions of numerous teachers of high reputation in their calling. In all its salient features, this scheme will be found to have foreshadowed the general groove which the School of Education at the University was afterwards to follow. We shall enumerate here only the outstanding aims of that scheme as specified by him.

A school of education, he said in substance, should offer an opportunity for the thorough study of that subject as one of the most important functions of society; it should give the training that is necessary for pedagogics or for school administration; it should develop scientific methods of testing school work, and demonstrate the manner of their application; it should become a centre of educational influence, to which teachers could resort for instruction and guidance; it should, by lectures, bulletins, visitations, and the like, instil into the public mind a just conception of educational progress, and the general duties of citizenship in all branches of community service, but especially in that branch which relates to the public schools. In short, a School of Education attached to a university should not be simply a chair of education, like the chair of mathematics, Latin, or English literature, but rather a professional department, like the department of law, medicine, or engineering, engaged in diligently preparing a large company of young men and women to prosecute scientific educational work so successfully that the educational process, from the primary school to the university, should, through them, be reduced to a perfect cooperative unity.

The need of schools of education in all the State universities of the South to carry into effect these principles, thus briefly epitomized by us, had been so clearly perceived by the General Education Board, that, not long after its organization, it had begun to use its means and its influence to encourage their establishment. At the beginning of the Ninth Period a great gap still existed between the University of Virginia and the public schools of the Commonwealth. It was not until the year 1906 was passed that the rapid development of secondary education began in the State. This movement was due


primarily to the recognition of the fact that it was necessary to create and maintain the secondary school if there was to be a completely successful linking up of elementary school, secondary school, and university. Indeed, there could be no other guarantee for a continuous and progressive educational process.

How was the proper coordination of the work of each section of the chain to be permanently assured, and the cooperation of all firmly kept up? From the beginning, there seemed to be but two ways to bring all this about: (1) college and university must adopt requirements for entrance that would reserve to the secondary school the function of preparing the student for admission to the higher institution; (2) the college, whether independent or departmental, must aid in standardizing the work of the high school, so as to promote its efficiency. As the tie between the University of Virginia and popular education grew closer, through these two general policies, the need of more carefully drilled teachers became more insistent, and the call for more expert supervision more difficult to resist. What could meet this growing need and supply this increasing demand, which were crying out in every community? The normal school could furnish the subordinate teacher; but what could be looked to with confidence to furnish the educational leader, without whose expert knowledge the value of the work of the subordinate teacher must be sensibly diminished? The answer which time returned to this vital question was: the formal School of Education.

The functions of such a leader were clearly grasped even before the actual creation of his class: he was to assist in persuading the people to add continuously to the number of the high schools; he was to place the courses

of study of those already in existence or to be established, on a scientific footing; and he was to make them thoroughly efficient in imparting information and training. It was to be his duty also to foster an intimate connection between the secondary schools and the University. This was to be done by his coming into close personal intercourse with the principals, teachers, and officials of these schools; and also by creating a system of accrediting through offering a university course in secondary education for the benefit of those students who expected to teach, or to occupy some educational administrative station.

With all these definite ideas as to the true function of secondary education deeply planted in the minds of the men who were responsible for the government of the University of Virginia, the establishment of a School of Education in that institution was only waiting for the acquisition of the pecuniary means to support it. The first suggestion in favor of its introduction was dropped by Professor E. Reinhold Rogers in the pages of the Bulletin about 1904. But that suggestion appeared remote from realization until April, 1905, when President Alderman, at his inauguration, was able to announce that Mr. Rockefeller had donated one hundred thousand dollars to the University, the income of which was to be spent in maintaining a School of Education, to be known as the Curry Memorial School, in honor of that great apostle of public instruction in the South. This gift, supplemented by an annual appropriation from the General Education Board, made it possible to create the chair of education, and also the chair of secondary education. W. H. Heck was chosen the incumbent of the first, and Bruce R. Payne, of the second. The purposes of the general school at that time were declared to be: (1) to



include in the college curriculum, courses in education as the most important phase of sociology and civics; (2) to train departmental teachers for secondary schools, and principals and supervisors for both the elementary and the secondary; and (3) to found a centre for the advanced study of educational principles of immediate pertinence to the conditions existing in Virginia and the other Southern States.

Apparently, time did not modify this statement of the functions of the new school. Thus, it was said, in 1910, five years after that school was created, that it was designed, in the first place, for the benefit of those persons whose purpose in life was to teach or to manage public school affairs,—such persons required instruction and training in the scientific principles and technique of their calling. It was designed, in the second place, for those persons who were anxious to obtain, in general, a discriminating knowledge of the public school system, of educational psychology and history, and of educational methods.

As soon as Professor Payne was transferred to the University of Virginia from the College of William and Mary, he was assigned the task of assisting in the campaign,—which was, at that time, in full sweep,—of persuading the General Assembly to create a modern high school system, and afterwards to maintain it with a sufficient annual appropriation. First, he journeyed up and down the State speaking earnestly everywhere for the specific purpose of arousing an emphatic public sentiment in favor of the enactment of such legislation. In Virginia, prior to 1906, there was no fixed standard of requirement, and no uniform regulations of any kind, applicable to the few high schools that did exist. Such schools were only to be found in the cities and the towns.

There was only one here and one there among them which offered a four-year high school course; and this course, as a rule, was confined to mathematics and the Latin language. With the expert aid of Superintendent Eggleson, of the State Board, Professor Payne drafted a bill for the organization of a practical system of secondary schools; and also with the backing of that officer,—who was one of the most energetic and sagacious men who ever occupied that useful position,—and of the high school inspectors and the President of the University, he was able to persuade the legislature to adopt the measure.

As chairman of the University committee on studies, Professor Payne assisted the State Board of Education and the State Board of Examiners in framing a course that was exactly adapted to the needs of the people at large; and not content with this, he again and again canvassed the State, in whole or in part, to urge the different communities to establish more high schools. In 1905–06, when he became professor of secondary education at the University of Virginia, there were only forty-four such schools in the State, with an enrolment of 4900 pupils. In 1912–13,—the session following his translation to the presidency of the Peabody college for teachers in Nashville,—there were four hundred and twelve high schools, with an enrolment of nearly seven thousand pupils. This growth in the high school system quickened the spirit of education throughout the Commonwealth, from the elementary school to the University. It was the lack of adequate provision for the training of teachers for the public schools, now so increased in number, which led, through Superintendent Glass, of Lynchburg, to the establishment of the School of Methods at the University of Virginia, which, as we

shall see, passed, in 1909, under the guidance of Professor Payne.

The duties of Professor Payne, from year to year, during his incumbency of his chair, were as follows: (1) he helped to increase the efficiency of the high school teachers and administrators by addresses delivered at their meetings; (2) he personally inspected the high schools and suggested practical methods for improving them; (3) he visited community after community, in order, by timely arguments, to encourage a larger popular support for the high schools recently erected; (4) he distributed, without charge, numerous monographs relating to high school subjects; (5) he found out, by actual examination, which high schools were entitled to be accredited at the University of Virginia; and (6) he converted the School of Education into a clearing-house for information on high schools,—the proper administration, the right methods of teaching, the wisest course of instruction, for them.

Professor Heck, during his incumbency of the chair of education, performed a beneficent work of equal importance. He had, during several years, occupied the post of assistant secretary of the General Education Board, and was familiar with all the great questions involved in public instruction. During the period of Professor Payne's incumbency of the allied chair, the two men, in their intervals of leisure from their regular classes, would start out separately to traverse different sections of the State. Thus, in the course of the session of 1907-08, the two made a systematized effort to reach every part of Virginia. Payne conferred with the superintendents, principals, and other officials of the secondary schools, while Heck delivered addresses on the special subjects that touched the physical welfare of all

the schools. At a later date, when another incumbent occupied the chair of Professor Payne, Professor Heck followed a regular schedule in the campaigns which he undertook. His general theme was hygiene. He treated this subject from four points of view: (1) the hygiene of school buildings and equipment; (2) the hygiene of school management and instruction; (3) the hygiene of school development; and (4) cooperation of home and school for the protection of the schoolchild's health.

During some weeks, Professor Heck passed as many as five of each six days in the field, delivering frequently more than one address daily on topics that touched the sanitary condition of the schools,—such as water, utensils, cleanliness, janitor service, and ventilation. One day, he would attend an institute and confer with the teachers there assembled; the next, he would speak at a mothers' meeting or to a concourse of children in a public school-house. Wherever he went, he strove, with noble energy, to better the status of high school life by raising the ideals of the pupils in regard to their own physical and moral welfare alike, and by stimulating the teachers and the parents to more fruitful activities for the improvement of the young under their care. The standards of each community visited, in every department of its interests, were lifted up by the inspiring instruction of this trained representative of the University of Virginia; and through him, its influence reached far into many quarters, which, otherwise, would not have felt the power of her solicitous teachings. Each tour of this youthful apostle, who perished in the very flower of his usefulness, was said to have been a successful effort to cooperate with the public schools in bringing about the right kind of moral atmosphere and the

right degree of physical healthfulness, by urging unceasingly the benefits of cleanliness, order, industry, humanity, purity, courtesy, kindness, and mutual assistance.

"The University," declared President Denny, in 1905-06, "must be an evangel of educational reform. It must furnish educational experts and conduct educational campaigns. The public schools must look to the leadership of specialists. Let our institutions of higher learning surrender the idea of an educated class in favor of an educated community. Let them stand for the diffusion of knowledge among the masses."

There were many ways in which the University of Virginia was now carrying out this farsighted counsel, but in none was a more wholesome, more improving, or more elevating work performed by that institution, during these early years in the history of its department of education, than in the field-work of these two distinguished men, who set a pace which has been faithfully maintained by their successors.

But their beneficent labors were not limited to public addresses and inspections, or to thoughtful and expert advice. A wide province of study was covered by both of their schools; and that portion of their time which was not spent in educational excursions was given up to systematic instruction in their various courses. During the session of 1905-06, there were five of these courses. Professor Heck lectured upon the history of education, which carried him over the whole ground of ancient and modern times,—India, Egypt, China, Greece, Rome, Europe in the Middle Ages, the Renaissance, the Reformation, Modern Germany, France, America,—all were embraced in the scope of the survey. The theories of the great educational pioneers were discussed and

analyzed; and educational ideals and practice were described as phases of social evolution. In his second series of lectures, he touched upon the principles of general education, the modern hypothesis, study, and practice of physical education, school hygiene, and secondary school administration. Educational psychology formed also a section of this course. In his third series of lectures, the subjects considered were national, state, and city schools; public finances as bearing on education, school buildings, and equipment; the employment and supervision of teachers; the connection between society and the school-house; and the educational systems and policies of the South viewed in detail.

Professor Payne dealt with the psychology and philosophy of education in one course, and in another, with all the aspects of secondary education. How minute and practical was his instruction may be inferred from the following subjects embraced in one course only: (1) the proper way of organizing and administering high schools; the methods and sources of high school support; the graduation and classification of the students and lines of study; the relation of high school activities to the needs of social life; (2) the examination of high school systems in other States, in order to discover the best plan of legislation for constituting and equipping schools of secondary learning; (3) the most successful methods of high school teaching.

It will be perceived from this outline of the instruction given by the incumbents of the two chairs that, from the beginning, it was considered indispensable that the graduates of the School of Education should, not only be informed about all the practical conditions entering into modern school administration, but that they should also have acquired a solid basis of knowledge of such

vital themes as psychology, sociology, biology, hygiene, and physiology.

The lapse of another decade reveals no remarkable shifting in the ground covered, although, by 1919, the original two chairs had been organized into a department, with important additions to its faculty. There were nine courses offered the members of the undergraduate classes, and three, the members of the undergraduate and graduate. Those for the undergraduate were respectively: the biological foundations of education; educational hygiene; secondary education; history of educational systems; applied psychology; methods of teaching and studying; educational administration and supervision; educational measurements, surveys, and tests; and elementary school organization and supervision. For undergraduates and graduates, the three courses embraced: the place of the child in society; the psychology of biography; and school administration. Training was now provided for three classes of students: (1) the candidates for the baccalaureate degree in education; (2) the graduates of other institutions who were desirous of obtaining the necessary professional knowledge to qualify them to win the highest certificate issued by the State Board of Public Instruction; and (3) students at large who had been able to satisfy the general entrance requirements of the graduate department of the University of Virginia, and the special entrance requirements of the educational courses which they were pursuing.

In 1916-17, the faculty consisted of Charles G. Maphis, who had succeeded to the chair formerly occupied by Bruce R. Payne, and who was also known as "high school visitor;" Professor Heck, who was still the incumbent of the chair of education, which he was

to continue to fill until his lamented death; A. L. Hall-Quest, who was the incumbent of the chair of psychology and principles of teaching, with A. G. A. Balz as associate professor of psychology; and J. L. Manahan, who had been recently elected to the chair of educational administration. The instruction which this faculty was giving at the end of the Ninth Period was, in general, designed to train, in a scientific way, school principals, supervisors, and superintendents; to carry on scientific investigations; and to furnish technical help to the entire educational system of the Commonwealth.

During the session of 1911-12, a model building to serve as a shelter for the school, as it was at that date, was guaranteed by the Peabody Educational Board. This structure was to entail an expenditure of forty thousand dollars. The edifice was, in time, completed, and the school received an annual appropriation from the treasury of the same philanthropic organization.

A tribute to the efficiency of this school was paid in a statement by the head of the Carnegie Foundation in 1910-11. We have seen that it was largely due to the first report of this Foundation, in 1906, that the University of Virginia, in common with other institutions, adopted those entrance requirements which that Foundation had made indispensable for all who wished to be registered in its accepted list. In his letter to President Alderman, President Pritchett said that the University of Virginia was put on the Carnegie Foundation for (1) its past achievements; (2) the eminence of its faculty; (3) the advancement of its standards of admission; but especially for (4) the success of its efforts to develop and improve the secondary schools. "Our executive committee realizes," he concluded, "that a State university should relate itself directly to the system of high schools

in the State; and it believes that the leadership which the University has shown in these matters will result, not only in greater educational efficiency to the whole system of schools in Virginia, but that it will likewise result in furnishing to the University a far better prepared group of students."

On another occasion, President Pritchett said: "There is no obligation which in a State supported university is more clear than that of developing the secondary school. The only method by which the State can do this is to ordain for itself requirements of admission, and to respect the field of the high school and not to trench upon it. The State university which itself undertakes to conduct secondary school work is hindering the development of a true secondary school system. The university helps the secondary schools best when it sets up fair standards and enforces them; when it holds the high schools responsible for good levels, and not when it undertakes to do the high schools' work for them; when it gives the secondary school system a wise, sympathetic scrutiny, and leads it with increasing thoroughness and efficiency."

It was these conclusions, reached through practical observation and experience, which the Department of Education has always sought to reduce to a reality in its class-work and field-work alike. It was due, in large measure, to the zealous energy of this department that the number of young men from the public schools so steadily augmented in the registration lists of the University. In April, 1916, President Alderman referred, in a public address, to the fact that, during the previous six years, this increase had amounted to fifty per cent.; and that, in the course of the year of his speech, ninety-one graduates from these schools were admitted,—

which was one third of all the male graduates of the accredited public high schools of Virginia. Twelve years before, there had been to all intents none. "This means," he said, in conclusion, "that we have tied the University by logical ties to the real democratic life of the State."

XXXII. *The Summer School*

So far, we have described only those activities of the School or Department of Education which related to such fundamental subjects as class instruction, high school inspection, and school hygiene. We will now take up two additional activities of equal importance in their own provinces; namely, the summer school and the extension lecture.

For a period of nine years, there assembled at the University, the Virginia Summer School of Methods, under the general supervision of E. C. Glass and his associates. During the holding of these successive sessions, there was no official connection between the University of Virginia and that school. Indeed, while this independent status lasted, the school was practically an ordinary institute; but when it came under the general control of Professor Payne, as the representative of the University, it assumed the much more difficult function of offering additional courses that rose to the dignity and fullness of those taught in the higher seats of learning. As long as it was the conventional School of Methods, the attendance, owing to competition with other small normal schools, had fallen below three hundred students. This dwindling prosperity suggested to the watchful State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Joseph D. Eggleston, that it would be an advantage to the public school system should the University re-

organize the School of Methods on a broader and higher platform. The old work of equipping teachers for the elementary schools was not, under his plan, to be discontinued, but, by the employment of the University's professors, in cooperation with other distinguished educators, the ripest instruction could be rendered practicable for men and women who were already engaged as teachers, principals, or superintendents of high schools or colleges, or who aspired to advanced standing in the courses of the University at the regular session.

The adoption of Superintendent Eggleston's proposal made the University of Virginia the culminating centre for the summer term work. At the time that the summer session was established in 1907, numerous communities of the State were busy erecting buildings for their projected high schools; and in order to equip them for use and to obtain teachers for them, steps had been taken to collect the funds wanted by means of county and local taxation. The most knotty difficulty, however, was to secure a sufficient number of instructors for their service. We have seen already how influential this fact became in encouraging the addition of a school of education to the University. It seemed to be impracticable for the teachers to go out of Virginia to acquire, in their few months of leisure, the special training which they needed; and what training they really required could only be fully comprehended within their own State. The summer school at the University, so soon as its standards were raised, seemed to meet exactly the demands of their case, for it was not expensive to reach its precincts; it was not dear to reside there during the summer season; and instructors could be found there who knew and could remove their particular deficiencies.

The allurements of the advantages offered was so

great that, beginning, in 1907, with five hundred students, the attendance, during the next three years, increased to thirteen hundred and fifty; and the registration continued to grow larger with the progress of time. The quality of that registration may be discerned from an examination of the antecedents of the students enrolled in 1911,—during that session, there were to be found in the list three hundred graduates of colleges, four hundred and seven graduates of high schools, one hundred and twenty-four bachelors of arts, twenty-one masters of arts, two doctors of philosophy, eleven college instructors, and one hundred and forty principals of schools. Directing the studies of this earnest body of men and women were fifty-three instructors. Two years afterwards, there were sixty-eight; and three years afterwards, seventy-three.

During the summer session of 1906–07, the subjects embraced in the courses of instruction were English grammar, rhetoric, and composition; English literature and American literature; ancient, mediaeval, and modern history; American history and government; algebra, plane geometry, nature, botany, biology and physical geography; physics, chemistry, agriculture, manual training, first-year Latin and French, second-year German and French; school administration, methods of teaching, psychology, and logic. In time, archaeology, astronomy, domestic economy, drawing, commerce, education, hygiene, library methods, Spanish language, story telling, and the art of composition and music, were added to the round of topics. By 1909, the number of courses had swelled from sixty-three to one hundred and one. The demand after this for vocational studies in the public schools steadily increased,—such studies, for instance, as those which prepared for agricultural demonstrations,

and for the organization of farmers' clubs, canning clubs, and the like. The summer school recognized the pertinency of this popular disposition, and grounded the teachers in the best methods of serving it. Moreover, it held numerous rural life conferences, and endeavored thereby to stimulate interest in all that would raise the status of that life.

In 1914, the General Assembly increased the State appropriation from four thousand dollars to ten thousand, five hundred, on condition that every teacher registering from Virginia should be admitted without any charge for tuition. Students who entered from another State were called upon, in 1914-15, to pay a fee of twelve dollars. In 1918, the appropriation by the University for a single summer session amounted to fifteen hundred dollars, and by the town of Charlottesville, to five hundred. From all sources, the summer school of this year received an income of \$19,977.50. The expenses did not exceed \$18,618.87, which left a surplus of \$1,357.00. In 1917, however, there had been a deficit of \$936.72.

As already mentioned in a previous chapter, credits for advanced standing in the regular classes of the University were allowed for successful work accomplished during the summer session. An industrious and ambitious young man could, by the application of three such sessions, shorten the time for winning his baccalaureate degree by at least one year. Extraordinary strictness, however, was shown in scanning the character of this work. It did not follow that it would always relieve the candidate of the necessity of meeting satisfactorily the entrance requirements of the University. The rules governing his case demanded that no course in the summer session should be accepted in lieu of these en-

trance requirements unless the dean and professor of his future class should decide that the summer courses were equivalent to them; and the same condition was attached to a grant of advanced standing for certain primary studies which he had previously covered in the summer school. And he was allowed still more advanced standing, if the dean of the college, the faculty committee on degrees and courses, and the professor in charge of the subject for which credit was desired, should join in a similar decision touching the advanced work which he had accomplished in that school.

In addition to the advantages of instruction given by professors of great learning and ability, the students of the summer session enjoyed the use of the laboratories, museums, and libraries of the University. Rest rooms were also provided for them. Madison Hall, with its reading-room, was thrown open to them from nine in the morning until ten in the evening. Daily addresses were delivered in Cabell Hall, interspersed with music, both vocal and instrumental. The gymnasium, with its swimming pool and baths, was accessible to them without the payment of a fee. There were vesper services in the chapel on Sunday; organ recitals in the public hall; and excursions to Monticello, Natural Bridge, Luray, and the battle-fields.

But the most picturesque forms of recreation enjoyed by the students of the summer school were the games and pageants which were organized for their amusement. The games were conducted on the Lawn by an expert, and a large number of teachers took a delighted part in them. Stories of folk-lore or ancient myths were recited from the Rotunda steps to attentive audiences gathered to listen. At other times, folk-dances were danced on the Lawn in the twilight. In July, 1911, a

series of tableaux, with a chorus, were presented in three parts, each of which illustrated a dramatic phase of the history of the Nation. A stage for these tableaux was found in the south front of the Rotunda. The pageant which was celebrated in July, 1913, was long remembered for its highly colored beauty. The cast embraced as many as two hundred persons, and it required the area of Lambeth Field to afford the space needed for the performance. Plays were also acted by regular companies that possessed an international reputation for their trained skill,—thus, during one session, the Cobourn troupe appeared in *Richard III*, the *Tempest*, and the *Rivals*; and during another, the Clifford Devereux troupe in *She Stoops to Conquer*, *Scarecrow*, and *A Comedy of Errors*.

So strong waxed the feeling of unity and fraternity among the members of the school, that, about 1913, they entered into an association for its formal and permanent expression. This organization gave the director information about prospective students; aided him in spreading abroad knowledge of the courses of instruction; and pointed out additional Southern communities to which the influence of the school might be extended. There were minor divisions of this central association in all parts of the country where it was represented by graduates.

XXXIII. *University Extension*

Finally, one of the principal aims of the School of Education has been to use the extension lecture as a means of spreading the scholastic usefulness of the University of Virginia. The extension courses of that institution have been described as the organized and systematic endeavor to bring some of the advantages of

the culture and training to be found within the college precincts to people who reside without. It has put the resources of a great seat of learning, whether in the form of faculty, libraries, laboratories, and mechanical shops, at the complete disposal of other communities and their inhabitants. In other words, it has brought the University of Virginia to the doors of innumerable men and women who cannot go to it; it has been a helping hand and an illuminating torch held out to every city, every town, every village, and every rural neighborhood in the State; it has been the connecting link between every part of the University and the actual condition of life in the entire Commonwealth.

The most highly developed form of university extension to be discovered in the United States, at that time, was the one associated with the principal scholastic institution of Wisconsin. The latter's staff of experts reached out to every branch of the social and economic affairs of that commonwealth. The extension lecture system was organized, in 1912-13, at the University of Virginia, on a similar pattern. Professor Heck, of the School of Education, was appointed the director; and a course was laid off, with distinct lines of cleavage. These were as follows: (1) class meetings, given up to lectures and quizzes, held in the buildings of public schools and the local Young Men's Christian Associations, and the like; (2) instruction in technical themes imparted to persons employed in trades and machine-shop work, and also to salesmen, and so on; (3) preparation of syllabi for debaters belonging to clubs situated without the precincts; (4) public lectures on topics relating to the public service and welfare. Among these topics were sanitation and preventive medicine; village surveys and improvements; commission govern-

ment for cities; municipal beautification; civic economics; and other subjects of a kindred character.

During the first year following the inauguration of the extension course, twenty-seven members of the Faculty were enrolled in the list of lecturers. The broadness and variety of the ground traversed by them are demonstrated by the nature of their themes. These themes pertained to some aspect of history, medicine, law, chemistry, languages, literature, geology, education, physics, political science, effect of war on race, tree life, philosophy, the high school as a social institution, literary haunts in England, the tariff, good roads, soap bubbles, study of living things, mineral resources of Virginia, life of the ancient Greeks, and the Solar System. There was not a department of the University which was not represented among the speakers. It was asserted that, during one year, one professor alone, Rev. W. H. Forrest, had delivered sixty-two lectures and addresses, and sixty-nine sermons, beyond the precincts, the larger proportion of which had fallen distinctly within the category of extension work.

But perhaps the most indefatigable of all the laborers in this great province was Professor C. Alphonso Smith. In 1913, beginning January 10, and ending March 28, he spoke on sixteen occasions, and his itinerary carried him as far south as Rome, in Georgia, and as far north as Chambersburg, in Pennsylvania. Between January 11 and April 2, 1915, he delivered eight extension lectures; in 1916, beginning January 15, and ending May 8, thirteen. In the course of these lecture-tours, he visited, not only large cities, like Washington, Richmond, and Atlanta, but small centres of population, like Earlysville, in Albemarle County, Buckingham Court-House, East Radford, and Bedford City. There

were other professors who established records that indicated almost equal activity.

In his annual report for 1913-14, Professor Kepner suggested the arrangement of a programme of extension work for the general School of Biology and Agriculture. He proposed that two towns should be selected, in which a series of thirty lectures and demonstrations should be given by the instructor in charge, assisted by his students; that the series should extend to plant and animal morphology and physiology; and that its aim should be to supplement the teachings of the public schools and the State department of agriculture. In 1915-16, he delivered a course of seven extension lectures along these clearly defined lines. "We are both taking an active part," said Professor Lewis, his colleague in 1917-18, "in the campaign of visiting the high schools in the interest of higher education. We are also taking an active interest in the development of work in science in the Virginia high schools. In this connection, I am serving as president of the science section of the Virginia Educational Association."

John S. Patton, the librarian of the University, counseled, sometime before the plan was actually adopted by the State, that the University should establish, out of its own collection of books, the travelling library for the benefit of the public schools of Virginia. The scheme submitted by him was that packages of pamphlets, magazine articles, and speeches, relating to questions to be debated by specific public schools, should be forwarded to their representatives as often as needed for use.

Professor Heck was so much encouraged by the success of the extension courses, that, in 1912-13, he predicted that the hour was close at hand when the Uni-

versity of Virginia would possess a corps of professors whose principal duty would be to deliver lectures in the country at large,—not simply one here and another there, as was then the case, but, in succession, a series in each place, on some theme of supreme importance to that community; and all without cost to its people, beyond payment of the travelling expenses of the lecturer,—which was the rule already in operation.

A step promotive of still greater practical usefulness was the establishment of a formal bureau of university extension at a later date. “This bureau,” said President Alderman at the time, “will spread the campus of this University out to every hamlet in the State, so that, if the State needs trained science to foster economic organization in its life, to educate its children, to bring order out of chaos in its public revenues, to become aggressive and effective in the application of scientific knowledge and business organization to the conduct of the State’s affairs, it can hope and expect to find such aid in its State University.” The bureau was under the general supervision of Director Maphis, assisted by a committee of twelve professors. Its purpose was proclaimed at the date of its organization to be to advance the welfare of the people of Virginia (1) by giving instructive lectures in different communities; (2) by encouraging the formation of literary societies in the public schools through gifts of documents pertinent to debate; (3) by loaning package libraries to all schools and associations asking for them; (4) by distributing gratuitously the Virginia High School Quarterly; (5) by issuing bulletins that recorded the fruits of the researches and investigations of the University Faculty; and (6) by submitting, whenever there were vacancies in the schools, information about possible teachers.

Before the close of 1918, the mission of the bureau had expanded far beyond these original limits. What did its work consist of at the end of the Ninth Period? First, it scattered a fund of all sorts of general knowledge by sending out library books and answering questions; second, it stimulated public discussion and debate by assisting the High School Literary and Athletic League; third, it assigned a definite number of professors annually to deliver lectures beyond the precincts; fourth, it organized county and State clubs, which were to make a complete study of social conditions in the different counties and large community centres; fifth, it promoted school hygiene and encouraged educational enterprises; sixth, it brought to the University conferences on rural life, or sent out University workers to take a hand in every branch of constructive and demonstrative civic effort; seventh, it issued bulletins and publications; and eighth, it initiated courses of study by correspondence for the benefit of those persons who were unable to matriculate.

In September, 1916, F. M. Alexander was appointed to the position of assistant director of the extension bureau. His duties consisted of the regular routine office-work; writing articles for various periodicals; delivering addresses; assisting with suggestions the Virginia High School Literary and Athletic League; managing the advertisement of the summer school; collecting data on correspondence study; establishing the honor system in each new high school; arranging the dates for extension lectures; and editing publications.

It was principally due to the active interest and wise foresight of Professor Archibald Henderson, of the University of North Carolina, that the plan of exchanging professorships between the different Southern insti-

tutions of higher learning was adopted by them. Henderson had drawn attention to the fact that the University of Virginia, the University of North Carolina, and Vanderbilt University, had, during many years, exchanged baseball, football, and debating teams,—a policy which had undoubtedly fostered kindly feeling between these institutions, but which had produced no real comity, because it was not the most vital form of intercommunication. There had been lacking withal some influence that would have brought them together socially and academically; and this, Professor Henderson thought could be found in an exchange of distinguished teachers.

In 1911, there was created an exchange professorship between the United States and Japan, the object of which was to cultivate a more cordial intercourse between the peoples of the two nations. The following universities shared in this important international arrangement: Yale, Columbia, Johns Hopkins, Virginia, Illinois, and Minnesota. It was provided that, during every alternate session, a professor from some one of the imperial educational institutions of Japan should deliver at each of these seats of learning a series of addresses on the different aspects of Japanese life. On the alternate years, an American professor from one of the six American universities mentioned was to visit Japan to lecture on some feature of American civilization. The first appointee on this foundation who appeared at the University of Virginia was Dr. Nitobe, of the University of Tokyo. He was followed by the distinguished dean of the agricultural college attached to Tohoku University.

But of greater international interest still was the American lectureship which the Emperor William estab-

lished at the University of Berlin, and which was named in honor of Theodore Roosevelt. This position had been filled by men of such high reputation in their calling as Professor Burgess, of Columbia, Professor Hadley, of Yale, and Professor Wheeler, of the University of California. Professor C. Alphonso Smith, who had been recently elected to the Edgar Allan Poe chair of English in the University of Virginia, was chosen as their successor. He was appointed by the Prussian Ministry of Education, on the nomination of the trustees of Columbia University. "I was the first Southerner to occupy the position," said Professor Smith afterwards, "and in my references to Thomas Jefferson and Joel Chandler Harris, I felt a sort of ambassadorial responsibility to place in their proper setting two men of whom the Germans knew little." Smith, who was a direct descendant of John Kelly, who rebuffed Jefferson's overture for the purchase of his land for the site of the University of Virginia, had filled the chair of English Language in the University of North Carolina, and had been dean of the graduate department in that institution. During his tenure of this chair, he had delivered numerous addresses before clubs, schools, colleges, universities, State legislatures, and educational conferences.

His absence from his post at the University of Virginia extended from September, 1910, to the middle of March, 1911. He was the first of the appointees on the Roosevelt foundation to confine his utterances to literary subjects. He chose for his public introductory lecture "American Literature," and for his seminar work, for the benefit of special students of English letters, "Edgar Allan Poe." His inaugural address was delivered on November 10 (1910), and was at-

tended by an audience of two thousand persons,— among them, the Emperor and Empress and the American Ambassador with his staff. In conversation with Professor Smith, after the conclusion of the lecture, the Emperor confessed that he had never read any of the works of Poe, although he had exhibited a fair knowledge of American humor and the American short story. “Another surprise,” says Professor Smith, “came when, after commending to me, in terms of measureless laudation, Chamberlain’s amazing *Foundations of the Nineteenth Century*, and after I had asked him what place Washington and Jefferson occupied in the work, he said, ‘I do not recall that either of them was mentioned.’” “In his study of history,” adds Professor Smith, “democracy and all democratic movements had been ignored, and so they were ignored by his favorite historian.”

The seminar lectures were delivered in a hall one wall of which was adorned with a large picture of the University of Virginia; and the book-marks of the pupils were copies of a photograph of Poe’s room in West Range. “Everybody in Germany,” says Professor Smith, “placed Poe on a pinnacle.” When asked by a German who was the most famous woman born in America, he replied that the choice would fall between Pocahontas and Dolly Madison. “But what is your answer?” he asked the German. “Why,” was the prompt reply, “I should have said Annabel Lee.”

Professor Smith was invited to repeat the series of lectures,— which related exclusively to American literature,— at the University of Leipsic, but was compelled, by the brevity of the time at his disposal, to decline. Early in February, 1914, a number of lectures in return were delivered at the University of Virginia by a distinguished German scholar.

XXXIV. *The Library*

On the threshold of the session of 1903-04, the number of volumes in the library was said to be about fifty thousand, and in 1908-09, about seventy thousand. Among the most interesting of all these volumes was still the Hertz collection of classical texts, which, during this period, was withdrawn from the obscurity and confusion of their former storage place and accurately classified. It was found that the majority of these works were printed in the Latin, Greek, and German tongues; the minority in numerous other languages; but not one of them in English. The dates of the editions, in many cases, went back further in the past than the foundation of Jamestown; and some of the volumes were in existence when the Spanish Armada bore down upon the southern coast of England. One was printed in the year of Shakspeare's birth; another had come from the Aldine press of Venice only twenty-three years after the foot of Columbus first touched the shore of San Salvador; while a few volumes were the product of the famous Elzevir Press at Amsterdam, forever consecrated in the eyes of bibliophiles.

Among the gifts which increased the variety of the contents of the library during this Period, were several hundred letters in manuscript written by Joseph C. Cabell, the coadjutor of Jefferson. They threw a clear light upon the social and political spirit of his times. In 1909-10, Ambassador Jusserand, representing the French Government, presented a large number of books descriptive of French history, letters, art, and archæology. A full set of Buffon's splendid volumes on Natural History was given by Dr. George Tucker Harrison.

Another addition of the first importance was the twelve thousand volumes which had been bequeathed by

Edward Wilson James, of Norfolk, Virginia. Mr. James, having inherited a large fortune, had found his most congenial occupation in reading and in collecting books. His taste for literature had been formed in an older school, and discovered its highest gratification in the perusal of the classics written in his own language, embracing all those which had conferred literary fame on America as well as on the mother country. One by one, the volumes had been purchased and thoughtfully digested, until the whole collection seemed to be but the visible shadow of his inner moral and intellectual life. It was in the midst of these books that he passed away suddenly, and around him as he lay dead, so many days before his decease was known, were scattered the copies of that quaint *Lower Norfolk Antiquary*, into which he had breathed so much of his own original personality, so redolent of a day when good literature had not yet found a rival in the high-flown fiction of the modern best-seller.

And this was true in another way of the collection of nearly four thousand volumes which Dr. Bennet W. Green left to the library by his last testament. This collection was made up of more recent titles, but it had been chosen with extraordinary discernment. It was particularly rich in works on Virginian and American history, and on the topic of philology, in which his interest had been that of a highly discriminating student. Dr. Green, like Mr. James, was a wealthy bachelor, who had the disposition of a cultivated recluse, with no other interests to distract his attention from the pursuit of the only genuine recreation of his life,—the enjoyment of books; and in that department, his judgment was at once solid and refined. No volume bearing upon any of the subjects which appealed most strongly to his thoughtful

mind remained unpurchased; and it followed that the collection which he gradually formed after his retirement from the practice of his profession, represented, in the line of his special leanings, a small library of conspicuous merit.

The books belonging to Professor Mallet which his widow presented in 1913 related to the vocational themes of medicine, physics, and economic geology. One of the largest gifts ever received by the library was made by Dr. William P. Morgan, of Baltimore. About one thousand of these volumes were of a medical turn; but the remaining three thousand ranged over an extraordinary variety of topics,—fiction, extending from the author of Sir Charles Grandison to Zola, ornithology, voyages, biology, art, and music. There were twenty-three volumes on the horse alone, and about fifteen hundred on the campaigns of the War of Secession. "There is not one title in this collection," wrote Dr. Morgan, "that has not appealed in some way, and will not again appeal, to some person. It includes unique books, like Professor N. P. Smith's manuscript introductory lectures. The oldest book on microscopy is among them. I have found a deal of modern medicine and modern thought in the books of the Ancients. Hippocrates was a successful practitioner. Lucretius antedated Charles Darwin. You will find in this collection books of both."

Mrs. James A. Harrison, in 1914, presented a section of the library which had been left by her deceased husband, Professor Harrison, one of the most accomplished and cosmopolitan scholars of his time. Another gift of value was made by Mrs. Colston, of Cincinnati, a granddaughter of Andrew Stevenson, a former rector of the University; in 1915-16, she transferred to the library her grandfather's books, which included among

their number, many of the English standard works. A carefully picked group of volumes relating to botany and theology was bequeathed by Rev. Haslett McKim; and about thirteen hundred medical authorities were received from the estates of Dr. John S. Wellford, of Richmond, and Dr. Herbert Nash, of Norfolk. Interesting gifts of separate books were the *Sayings of Jesus*, clipped by Jefferson; the Bible which he used, presented by Mrs. Burke, of Alexandria; and a copy of Palladio's drawings, found in Rome, and presented by the American ambassador to Italy, Thomas Nelson Page.

By 1913-14, the library had increased to eighty thousand volumes. It had now become the largest in the South, and the forty-fifth in the entire American list. Its value had risen in proportion. On the side of the Romantic and Teutonic languages, its contents bore a favorable comparison,—in excellence, at least,—with the collections of the wealthy institutions of the North. It was peculiarly rich in works relating to Confederate and Virginian history, and also in such as threw light upon the various educational, political, and racial problems of the Southern States. It also possessed many volumes belonging to the provinces of biology, travels, geography, English and foreign literature.

The gifts to the library, during the Ninth Period, were not limited to small or large packages of books,—endowment funds, either from living persons or by will, were received in considerable amounts. Richard B. Tunstall, of Norfolk, in 1907, gave the sum of one thousand dollars to establish a memorial in honor of his wife, the memorial to take the shape of a collection of American and English poetry. The sum of five thousand was also received under the testament of Judge Lambert Tree, of Chicago, an alumnus, to be expended at

the discretion of the librarian. Arthur Curtis James, of New York City, in 1911-12, presented four hundred dollars for the purchase of books relating to the negro. But a far more important bequest of funds than had been previously made was contained in the will of Dr. B. W. Green: five-sixths of his estate, valued at one hundred and fifty thousand dollars, was, by its provisions, to be added to the endowment of the library.

Between July, 1907, and July, 1908, the library's total income from all sources was estimated at \$4,267.23; and of this slender sum, \$2,691.00 was in the form of receipts from permanent funds and annual appropriations. The income from the permanent funds alone was \$2,000 during the sessions of 1911-14, while the general appropriation, during that year, amounted to \$6,398.00,—which also included the money due for salaries. Previous to 1912-13, a part of this annual sum was apportioned to the several professors for the purchase of books relating to the subjects of their respective departments; but, in the course of that year, this rule was tentatively abandoned. In 1914-15, the annual appropriation to cover all expenses and purchases was fixed at \$9,198.00.

What proportion of the students entered their names for books? How many volumes were taken out from year to year? It should be borne in mind that only the general library is considered in these two inquiries. There were, by 1910-11, eight departmental collections housed beyond the precincts of the central collection, which was still preserved under the dome of the Rotunda,—there was the astronomical library, stored in the McCormick Observatory; the biological and botanical, in the biological laboratory; the engineering, in the mechanical laboratory; the geological, in the Brooks Mu-

seum; the Hertz, in Cabell Hall; the physical, in the physical laboratory; the law, in Minor Hall; and the medical, in the basement of the Rotunda. All these libraries were for consultation under their roofs alone, and, for that reason, we do not include them in the estimates of circulation which we are about to give.

Independently of the patronage of the summer school, the number of volumes withdrawn in 1908-09 was 6,789, and in 1910-11, 9,060. Between March 1, 1911, and March 1, 1912, the number reached the higher total of 10,040; but this, doubtless, included the books which had been taken out by the students of the summer school. It was estimated for these twelve months that about one-half of the young men attending the University made use of the library in this manner. During the next twelve months, the total was 10,401; and of this number, 6,494 were debited to the students of the regular session, 1,551 to the students of the summer school, and 1,700 to the professors and others. The number withdrawn by cardholders was 613. Between March 1, 1914, and March 1, 1915, the number debited to students of the regular session was 6,149; of the summer school, 1,093; and to professors and others, 1,093. About fifty-four per cent. of the whole number of matriculates obtained books from the library during these months; and in the course of 1915-16, the percentage rose to seventy-eight, and in 1917-18 to ninety-four. A very full collection of volumes relating to the World War had been added by this time to the library; and this, perhaps, explains in part the larger proportion of borrowers.

In 1906, it was decided that the possible advantage of throwing open the library at night to readers should be tested in practice; and down to 1909, this new regulation continued in force. It was then abandoned, as the at-

tendance did not seem to justify its prolongation. During 1913-14, the experiment was resumed, and the result turned out to be more encouraging, although even then the nightly attendance did not go beyond fifty students. Previously, it had not reached a higher average than eight. Throughout the year ending February 1, 1918, the library was closed in the evening, owing to the necessity of restricting the budget to the smaller income which had followed the declaration of war in the preceding April. By 1915-16, the package system was in active operation; and the draft on the resources of the library was further increased by the organization of a league composed of the high schools of the State, which constantly called for authorities for use in each of their debates.

In the course of the Ninth Period, numerous additions were made to the art collections of the library, and the other public apartments of the University. Likenesses of distinguished members of the Faculty, who were either dead, or had recently retired from their chairs, were given by private individuals. Among the portraits were those of the elder Rogers, Tuttle, Stone, Whitehead, Mallet, McGuffey, Coleman, Barringer, J. A. Broadus, Courtenay, Noah K. Davis, Gildersleeve, Gilmore, Gessner Harrison, Schele de Vere, Towles, Venable, Holmes, and Patterson. A bronze bust of John B. Minor was presented by W. A. Clark, Jr. There was also a bust of Jefferson, and a bust of Washington, among the gifts. Of the portraits of the men who had been associated with the University in some administrative capacity, the most conspicuous were those of Chapman Johnson, Wertenbaker, Francis W. Gilmer, Joseph Bryan, and Armistead C. Gordon. There were also portraits of alumni,—James L. Gordon, J. Pembroke

Thom, Cameron E. Thom and George Ross; the headmasters, McGuire, Norwood, Blackford, and McCabe; Henry W. Grady, John L. Williams, R. H. McKim, J. Thompson Brown, J. R. Thompson, Linden Kent, John W. Daniel and Walter Reed; of distinguished soldiers,— J. E. B. Stuart, John S. Mosby, and William Smith; of benefactors of the University,— W. W. Corcoran, Leander J. McCormick, Edward W. James, A. H. Byrd, and Samuel W. Austin; and of the famous educator and publicist, J. L. M. Curry.

Jefferson M. Levy presented a picture in oils of the Apostle Paul brought before Agrippa, and Thomas F. Ryan, Church's famous canvas of the Natural Bridge, also in oils. There was, besides, an oil painting of a group representing Jefferson, Martha, his daughter, and Thomas Jefferson Randolph, his grandson. This was the gift of Mrs. Burke, of Alexandria, a descendant of the statesman.

xxxv. *Student Life — Intellectual Side*

In the closing issue of the magazine for the session of 1905–06, the announcement appeared that, in the future, that periodical would be under the general guidance of the School of English. The reason for the transfer was set forth at some length, and not without a touch of pathetic protest: "We cannot refrain from a feeling of sadness," remarked the editors, with obvious sincerity, "when we consider the causes which have made such a change necessary. As the athletic teams represent the prowess of a university, so its magazine brings before the world its intellectual qualities. The mental achievements of a great university do not depend on athletics, and the quality of the degrees is not judged by football victories. We would urge our college men to

spare a little time from the present pursuit of athletics and social glory for the cultivation of higher ideals."

The magazine had, during several preceding sessions, been showing a succession of deficits. Indeed, such a formidable debt had been piled up, in consequence of the steady shrinkage of patronage, that the alternative was presented to the two literary societies for decision: should the manner of publication be altered? or should the periodical be discontinued? The Kent Memorial School of English now offered to pay off its accumulated obligations, and assume all financial responsibility for its management during a period of three years, provided that the school was allowed an advisory supervision of its contents from number to number. When this period ended, the original contracting parties promptly agreed to continue the same arrangement for another session.

The magazine was now edited by a board which had been chosen by the entire body of subscribers, who numbered several hundred in all. The other officers consisted of a treasurer and a manager. No student was eligible to election on this board, unless he had contributed two acceptable articles to the pages of that periodical. Of the staff for 1907-08, only one member belonged to the School of English,—a proof that the magazine was really the organ of the whole University, and not of a single department. From 1908-09 to 1917-18, the editor-in-chief seems to have been a student from Virginia each year. Seventeen natives of that State occupied the post of associate editor during this interval, while the remaining fourteen were from other commonwealths, with Alabama slightly preponderating. One of these associate editors had matriculated as from Minnesota and another as from New Mexico.

The contents of the magazine, during the Ninth Period, ranged, with a wide flight, through the separate provinces of fiction, poetry, and essay. How multitudinous for any single year were the ventures in these different literary areas may be perceived from an enumeration for 1908-09,—in the pages of the magazine for that session, there were printed twenty-three compositions in fiction, thirty-four in verse, and nineteen in essays. The corresponding numbers for the following session were eighteen, thirty-five, and fifteen. The confidence of the authors in the excellence of their productions, whether imaginative or didactic, is proven by the frank attachment of their signatures to them. In 1910-11, the number of compositions in fiction were twenty-eight, in poetry, thirty-six, and in essays, twelve; in 1911-12, there were twenty-one pieces of fiction, thirty-five of verse, and about the same number of essays; in 1912-13, the corresponding figures were nineteen, forty-four, and thirteen; in 1914-15, twenty-two, thirty, and eleven. These enumerations were substantially representative of the whole of the Ninth Period.

It is to be inferred from the preceding grouping of facts that imaginative literature was, during this period, the most popular form in which the creative literary instincts of the students expressed themselves; and that, of its several varieties, poetry was the one most frequently chosen. The homely essay seems to have been kept in the modest background. This kind of writing had been supreme in the days of the Seventh Period, 1866-95, and had not lost all its primacy even during the Eighth, 1895-1904; but, under the influence of the stimulus which the supervision of the Memorial School of English gave to the production of imaginative articles, the essay appears, during the Ninth Period,

to have declined in importance. The poet and the short-story writer did not entirely succeed in suffocating the essayist, but, they certainly constrained him to limit the number of his printed utterances. Excellence in poetry and fiction demanded more originality of mind in a young writer than excellence in normal prose; and it is possible that these essays of the Ninth Period are, on the whole, more interesting and more valuable than the specimens of poetical and fictional invention preserved between the same covers. All verse, however, — even that of moderate merit, — possesses, at least the advantage of being a very good file for giving polish and precision to style.

There is always an emotion of fascination, if not of consolation, in discovering what our neighbors think of us. The editors of the magazine were in an unexcelled position to find out the precise value set upon their efforts by their contemporaries, — they had only to scan the pages of their college exchanges, for, with the rash confidence of youth, the persons in charge of these exchanges never shrank from recording, with engaging candor, their impressions of that periodical. In one of the numbers of the magazine for the session of 1912–13, the editor-in-chief, with the magnanimity of conscious superiority, has reprinted some of these impressions. To one admiring scholastic organ, issued in far-off Texas, the University of Virginia magazine seemed to be the “ideal college publication.” The *Richmond College Messenger* praised it as the “best of all the exchanges” that came to the table of its sanctum. The magazine of the University of Oklahoma, with remarkable generosity, pronounced it to be without an equal, while the University of Georgia magazine asserted that its contents always “dispersed the melan-

choly, and renewed the brightness, of the world for its readers." Still another Southern college editor exclaimed enthusiastically, in the words of Jaques, "More, prithee more of it;" and a third cheerfully acknowledged that he always missed his dinner in his eagerness to read the contents of his copy so soon as it arrived.

The tone of the foreign comments, however, was not always laudatory. The editors suspected a touch of condescension in the references of some of the Northern periodicals. The *Williams College Literary Monthly*, for instance, while refusing to admit its Southern contemporary to the "ten foot shelf of the seven magazines which it liked best," yet acknowledged that that contemporary possessed "a certain standard excellence." "It is a literary aristocrat that wears its traditions grandly," said the magazine of the University of Minnesota, "but it lacks real substance, and every-day sturdiness." "Its pages," remarked the *Carolinian*, "evidence a spirit of scornful dictatorship that is not in the least pleasing. It suggests a blasé, bored, and condescending air." The *Hollins Institute Monthly* and the *Randolph-Macon Female College Tattler* united in expressing their disapproval of its short stories, and when successfully answered, "took refuge," said the editors of the *University of Virginia Magazine*, scornfully, "behind a chocolate ice-cream soda."

The editors asserted,—no doubt with a correctness not open to dispute,—that the magazine faithfully reflected the literary tastes of its patrons. "Every article which goes into our pages," they remarked in 1915, "is carefully considered in reference to our subscribers, whose likes and dislikes have been carefully studied. Every man who can write is asked to hand

in matter. By making the contributor work this material over and over, a story or essay can be converted into good copy. We try to show the young writer where he is going wrong from the view-point of the public. In this way, the magazine has decided educational value."

It is to be noticed that the editors did not even pretend that they could improve the bad poetry which they received. It was only the defective story or essay which was sought to be recasted. As long as a medal was awarded for the most meritorious verse, there was little probability that the poets of the University would be discouraged by editorial coldness and aloofness in particular instances. A medal was also still bestowed for the best short story; and one too for the most admirable essay. These were granted by the decision of committees which had no connection with the University. Each prize could only be carried off by a student; and he could win that special prize but once. These medals were appraised at twenty-five dollars.

In 1907-08, a prize of five dollars was offered for the best negro dialect poem; and in order to allow room for the exercise of every sort of talent in this form of production, it was announced that the lines might be humorous or pathetic or descriptive or narrative as preferred, or with all these qualities rolled into a complete unity. As a means of giving more distinction to the three principal prizes, the first, for the best short story, was designated the "Edgar Allan Poe"; the second for the best essay, the "Woodrow Wilson"; and the third, for the best poem, the "John R. Thompson." As the dialect prize was only temporary, it was not dignified by a historic name.

College Topics was very correctly described as the

University newspaper, for it endeavored successfully to gather up, from week to week all the items of the social and athletic life of the academic community. In accord with a rule adopted in 1917 by the General Athletic Association, the staff of this periodical was limited to an editor-in-chief and an assistant editor-in-chief, six associate editors, a business manager, and an assistant business manager,—all to continue in office throughout the session. The editor-in-chief was picked out by the executive committee of the association from among the members of the board at large, on the strength of his record in that position; the assistant editor might be chosen from among the students as a body; while the associate editors were always selected from a list of candidates submitted by the editor-in-chief. The assistant business manager, who was appointed on personal application, was advanced in the second year of his tenure to the office of manager. The editor-in-chief, his assistant, and the business manager, received sixty-five per cent. of the annual proceeds of the journal as the remuneration for their labor in publishing it. The gradually rising popularity of *College Topics* seems to have led to an increase in the size of the editorial board,—in 1910, there were seated around its table as many as ten associate editors; in 1912, there were twelve; but in 1912–15, the number fell back again to the original ten. By 1913, however, a news editor had been added, and by 1915, an assignment editor, an athletic editor, and a reviewing editor. There were two assistant business managers; and the reportorial staff had expanded to seventeen. This staff was now selected after the applicants had been subjected to a seaching competitive test. A semi-weekly edition was now issued.

In 1912, the first step was taken to divorce this journal from the ownership of the General Athletic Association. There had already been started a movement among the students to establish a new and independent newspaper. To forestall this movement, the following changes in the regulations of *College Topics* were adopted: (1) the share in the profits which had, up to this time, been reserved for the use of the athletic association, were, thereafter, to be allowed to accumulate as a sinking fund, under the association's trusteeship,—a provision which was expected to detach the journal ultimately from the control of that body; (2) the editor-in-chief henceforth was to be appointed, not by the association as before, but by the outgoing board each April; (3) the assistant editor-in-chief was to serve as the news editor.

In October, 1907, the first number of the *University of Virginia Record* was issued. It was published monthly, with the exception of July and August. The object which this new periodical had in view was to offer for the convenience of the public press and the alumni, official information touching the general progress and plans of the University. It was intended to supplement the *Alumni Bulletin* by printing facts that were too small and too transient for the older, more dignified, and more solid journal to insert in its pages. The hand-book of the Young Men's Christian Association contained the calendar for the year, the schedules of lectures and examinations, the syllables of the college yells, and the college songs. *Madison Hall Notes* was issued every week of the session, and gave a summary of the religious news.

In a previous chapter, we referred to the journal issued by the students of the department of law. The

first number came from the press in October, 1913, and, from that time forward, eight numbers were printed annually. It was the earliest periodical of its kind to appear in a Southern seat of learning, and took, from the beginning, rank with the most respected periodicals of that order published in Northern institutions. *Corks and Curls* was, in 1913-14, incorporated for the first time with a definite capital. In the course of the first decade of its existence, it had been transformed from a fraternity publication into a college annual. Its initial volume was issued in May, 1888, under an editorial board which is said to have been nominated by Alfred H. Byrd and J. H. C. Bagby. Byrd was to become a liberal benefactor of the University in later years. Bagby was the son of the distinguished Virginian *litterateur*, George W. Bagby, and a nephew of John Hampden Chamberlayne, one of the most famous journalists of his native State. The impression has always prevailed that Ernest M. Stires, then a student of the University, and now the rector of St. Thomas's Church, in New York City, first suggested the establishment of this periodical.

The *Alumni News* began publication during the Ninth Period. Facts about its origin and scope will be submitted in a later chapter, when we come to consider the last phase in the history of the General Alumni Association.

XXXVI. *Student Life — Intellectual Side, Continued*

At the beginning of the Ninth Period, 1904-05, there was in existence at the University of Virginia a debating and oratorical council representing the two literary societies, the Washington and the Jefferson. It comprised five members in all, two of whom belonged

to the one society and two to the other, whilst the fifth was the professor of public speaking. It was their duty to arrange, in the names of these organizations, for the annual contests between the two societies, and also for the contests between the University and those institutions of Virginia, the South, and the Middle States, with which the University had combined under the terms of special agreements. The two societies were still members of the Southern Interstate Oratorical Association, which was composed, at this time, of the Universities of Texas, Alabama, Sewanee, Vanderbilt, South Carolina, Kentucky, and Virginia. Previous to 1905, the representatives of the University of Virginia had won in only a single contest,—the successful competitor, in this instance, being Aubrey E. Strode, afterwards a prominent senator in the General Assembly of Virginia. The two societies were also members of the Central Oratorical Association,—to which also belonged the Universities of Chicago, Ohio, Wesleyan, Cornell, Columbia, Yale, and Princeton. Two prizes were awarded to the successful orators of these contests,—one for an hundred dollars, and the other for fifty. The Interstate Association was composed of the colleges of Richmond, Randolph-Macon, Hampden-Sidney, Roanoke, and Emory and Henry, and the Universities of Virginia and Washington and Lee.

The method of selecting the representatives of the two societies for these trials of debating and oratorical skill was substantially the same in each instance,—the candidates were chosen by the sifting process of preliminary tests. Those who were successful thereby were considered eligible for individual instruction in daily rehearsals, until the yard-stick of a final competition should be applied to disclose the possessors of the

superior qualifications. This ultimate test was made by a committee of the Faculty sitting as the final judges of merit. The first step was to choose by debate ten representatives; this number was reduced to six by a second debate; and from this number, three were selected.

There were, as we have already stated, three strenuous oratorical and debating contests each year with representatives of other institutions. One group of champions would compete with their opponents of the Southern universities, either at some one of these seats of learning, or at the University of Virginia itself; a second group would meet their interstate rivals at Richmond or Roanoke; a third group would cross swords with representatives of the central universities at Chicago or Baltimore. In these oratorical contests, each speaker was permitted to select his own theme.

The inter-society debates were also events of interest. The team of the Jefferson would meet the team of the Washington, and the one pronounced successful in the tilt was awarded the Board of Visitors' prize. A committee of the Faculty served as judges. To the winning society was granted the privilege of holding the Harrison trophy during the ensuing year.

In 1915, a departure from the prevailing custom was ventured upon in inviting members of the Faculty to deliver addresses before the societies,—in the course of that session, Professor Hall-Quest spoke at a meeting of the Jefferson, and Professor Graves at a meeting of the Washington. Set orations were still delivered at the joint celebration in June. In 1915, Chief Justice Clark, of North Carolina, spoke. The chief officer at each celebration was the president of the Oratorical and Debaters Council, supported by the final presidents of the societies, who, in turn, handed over the medals bestowed

by their respective societies upon their best orators and debaters. The final celebration was abolished after this date, on condition that the means for paying the expenses of the inter-university debates should be supplied by the University treasury. These debates, under this new regulation, were arranged by a committee of four, two of whom were members of the Faculty, and the remaining two the representatives of the societies.

The disappearance of the joint celebration at the final exercises was regretted and deprecated by the older alumni, whose affection for the University had, in no small degree, been riveted by the charm and distinction of that occasion in former times. The substitution of Founder's Day introduced a purely college hour unknown to these alumni, and without personal interest to them, in consequence. In 1913, the Washington Society revived the interesting custom of celebrating the 22nd of February. Two years later, that body entertained the members of the Jefferson at a smoker; and later on, this courtesy was returned by the Jefferson, when the vivacity of the occasion was increased by a vocal and instrumental performance of the glee club.

About this date, the Congress of Debating Union was organized, the membership of which was drawn from the two societies. Its meetings, which took place monthly, were conducted in strict harmony with the procedure of the National House of Representatives. No sooner had a constitution been adopted than the body divided into two parties, one of which was represented by the members of the Jefferson, and the other by the members of the Washington. A struggle at once began for the possession of the speakership, in the course of which every parliamentary device was employed to ensure success for one side or the other. When this contest came

to an end, each party brought in bills and endeavored to pass them in the teeth of the opposition of the other party. The object of the Debating Union was to teach the members of the two societies the various methods followed by the deliberative assemblies.

Training in public speaking was also given by Professor Paul to those who desired it. A special course of instruction was imparted by him to the members of the inter-collegiate teams. This course dealt with the theory and practice of the art in all their varied phases. It was said, in 1907-08, that three-fourths of the young men, who had, by competition, won the distinction of representing the University in the interstate contests during the anterior two years had been pupils of Professor Paul.

The Washington and Jefferson Societies were not satisfied to cultivate powers of debate and oratory among their own members alone,—they brought before the State Teachers' Association, at a meeting held in 1913, definite plans for a speaking league of all the public and private secondary schools in Virginia. Seventy-five of them were soon enrolled, under the guidance of an executive committee composed of the professor of secondary education at the University and a member of each of its literary societies. A bulletin was subsequently issued which contained questions for debate, and also sufficient material for the preparation of the necessary arguments. The first discussions, however, were entirely local. One neighborhood school would challenge another school in the vicinage, and the winner in this contest would be entitled to the privilege of coming to the University to participate in the contest for the final championship. In May, 1914, the first inter-secondary school debate was inaugurated at the latter

place. At the start, twenty high schools competed, but by elimination, the number was reduced to the Buena Vista High School, represented by two girls, and the Charlottesville High School, represented by two boys. The boys went down in defeat before the girls. The Faculty and students alike were indefatigable in entertaining the visitors, both old and young,—there was a movie exhibition, without cost, for their amusement; and also an excursion to Monticello, in addition to other forms of open-air diversion.

XXXVII. *Student Life — Spiritual Side*

In 1908, at least fourteen committees had charge of the religious work of the Young Men's Christian Association; and the management of its business affairs was confided to a picked body of seven members. The organization, had, by this time, been incorporated. The old system was somewhat modified, in 1905, by the appointment of a general secretary and college pastor, who was to be the main director of the principal functions of the association, in addition to acting as the assistant to the different visiting clergymen in the chapel services; delivering an occasional sermon; and ministering to the young men. Mr. McIlhaney resigned from this office at the beginning of 1908, in order to solicit funds for the erection, just beyond the precincts, of St. Paul's Chapel, to meet the spiritual needs of the Episcopalians among the students and the members of the professors' families.¹ He was succeeded temporarily by H. M. Peck, who was allowed four assistants; and permanently by W. W. Brockman, who had filled a similar position in

¹ In the interval between the secretaryship of Broadnax and that of McIlhaney, the office had been occupied in turn by H. J. Gallaudet, W. M. M. Thomas, and Robert Beale, Jr.

several States, and had, at one time, been the occupant of the chair of English in Soochow University. During the session of 1909-10, W. N. Neff was the assistant secretary, and afterwards the full secretary. The offices of president, vice-president, and recording secretary, were reserved for the incumbency of students.

On the threshold of the Ninth Period, 1904-05, the work of the association was made up of the following particulars: it mailed, before each session began, a handbook to each expected new student at his home, and on his arrival at the University, assisted him in choosing his boarding-house, and if necessary, found employment for him that would defray his college expenses; it appointed a weekly prayer meeting, to which the entire body of students were invited, and at which many of them were always present; it enrolled a large number of the young men in the Bible classes, of which, during 1905, there were twenty, with an average attendance of eighty-seven; it held missionary conferences and created facilities for mission study; it established Sunday Schools in Charlottesville and the surrounding region; it arranged a lyceum course of instructive lectures, to which, during some sessions over four hundred tickets were sold; it issued the *Madison Hall Notes*; it gave a general reception for students at the beginning of the college year; it maintained an excellent reading-room; and finally, it kept in good condition all the tennis courts situated on the campus.

By 1908-09, the Bible classes had increased in number to twenty-eight, and the mission classes to thirteen. About twenty-six members were now volunteering for foreign service; and to stimulate the interest in this branch of Christian endeavor, deputations were frequently sent to the churches of the large cities. Twenty-

five students were regularly employed at this time in the mission Sunday Schools of the region around Charlottesville. At the beginning of each session, an evening was set apart for a mass-meeting in Madison Hall, at which the matriculates in their first year were instructed as to the character of the Honor System, and informed about the traditions of the University. Special evangelistic assemblies were now held by the association; and it also encouraged its members to visit the slums and jails; to study the practical side of the local negro problem; and to lead in founding young people's societies. It brought to the University Damosch's Orchestra and Ben Greet's Players. And it also issued a weekly directory and an annual report.

In 1912-13, extraordinary attention was turned to the enlistment of the students in voluntary Bible study, — more than one hundred were thus occupied; and they were enrolled in small groups for the purpose, and taught by some fellow-student or professor. There were also six public addresses delivered on Biblical themes. The association was now providing a full salary for its representative in the foreign mission field; namely, Dr. R. V. Taylor, Jr. who was stationed in China. In 1913-14, there was a students' evening, on which occasion, a committee arranged, for local talent, an informal programme, which included songs, readings, impersonations, and gymnastic feats. A weekly meeting was held every Tuesday night, in the course of the autumn, to discuss every aspect of the different college problems. The most distinguished graduates and athletic champions were now despatched to the prominent high schools of the State to speak on such vital topics as clean athletics, the Honor System, and the like. The association also decided to establish a free dispensary at

a site in the mountains distant about twenty-six miles from the University. Dr. Hugh H. Young, of Baltimore, promised to contribute the sum of two hundred and fifty dollars to its support annually, for a period of three years; a nurse was to be employed; and several medical students were to conduct a weekly clinic. This dispensary was thrown open, in 1915-16, in connection with the mountain mission of Rev. George Mayo.

During the session of 1916-17, the labors of the association still fell under two main divisions. First,—the work outside the precincts. A religious census was taken at the beginning of each session for the information and assistance of the churches in Charlottesville; the denominational leanings of the young men in college were thus discovered; and by this means, the association was able to obtain for these churches Sunday School teachers, leaders for the young people's societies, singers for the choirs, exhorters for the prayer meetings, and occasional speakers for the regular morning or evening services. As many as eighty-seven students were, during this session, enlisted in such activities. In addition to these zealous young men, there was a gospel team,—composed of five or six students,—which visited the smaller towns of the State during week-ends and vacations, and discoursed on general topics of moral significance. Speakers also were despatched to different places to take part in evangelistic labor, or to deliver addresses on the Bible, honest politics, clean athletics, or the Honor System. Night schools were opened at Simeon, Hickory Hill, and Birdwood, and also in Charlottesville,—here for the benefit of foreign working-men. The affairs of the dispensary established in the Blue Ridge were administered with constantly increasing usefulness. Two representatives of the association were now supported in the foreign mission

field; one thousand dollars had already been contributed for the continuance of their labors; and for a period of three years, starting with 1915, twelve hundred dollars had been pledged for each twelve months.

Second,—the work of the association within the precincts. This was still carried on along lines which had been laid down from the beginning of the Ninth Period. The chief activity was still group and lecture courses in Madison Hall,—prominent speakers from abroad, or members of the Faculty, still delivered, during the autumn and winter terms, religious addresses at the weekly meetings. The mission classes,—which were schools of methods in religious instruction,—were continued with undiminished zeal; nor was there any relaxation in the social ministrations of the association.

How many members could that association count on its roll? Of seven hundred and eighty-five matriculates, in 1907, four hundred and thirty were members; and this lacked only thirty of being all the professing Christians among the students. The following table indicates the relation of the University of Virginia in this particular to the other prominent American seats of learning at this time:

	<i>Students</i>	<i>Professed Christians</i>	<i>Members of Y. M. C. A.</i>
Yale	3208	1906	655
Cornell	3052	2000	750
Princeton	1384	950	914
Pennsylvania.....	3558	1779	400
Illinois	2011	974	974
Michigan	3700	2400	2400
Minnesota	1900	900	900
West Point	463	201	396
Virginia	785	490	430

In 1912-13, the enrolment of the association was five hundred and eighty-nine members; in 1913-14, the

number did not exceed five hundred; but afterwards, it continued to increase until the close of this Period.

It was estimated, in 1915-16, that the value of the property connected with the religious work of the University amounted to \$163,000. The appraisement was as follows: the grounds, building, and equipment of Madison Hall, \$110,000; the chapel and its equipment, \$35,000; the parsonage, \$8,000; and other items in the list, \$10,000. The endowment funds aggregated \$86,000. The income of the association derived from these endowment funds, contributions, and grants by the Board of Visitors approximated \$12,550.00. There still prevailed the rule that two dollars of the ten deposited by each student as a contingent fee was to be reserved for the support of the religious work of the University, unless objection to such a disposition of that sum was expressed in writing by him within one month after his matriculation.

What was the proportion of students belonging to religious sects, and to what extent were the different sects represented? In 1904-05, two hundred and thirteen were members of the church, and two hundred and eleven were in general sympathy with some one of the several denominations. The denominations which led in numbers, both as to membership and affiliation, during this session, were the Episcopalian, Presbyterian, and Baptist, in the order named. Every important religious body to be found in the American communities, omitting Christian Science, was represented. Throughout the Ninth Period, 1904-19, the largest proportion of students belonged to the Episcopal church, or, through their families, were affiliated with it,—from one hundred and seventy-four actual members in 1907-08, the number rose to one hundred and ninety-five in 1913-14. The next largest

membership was attached to the Presbyterian church,—the corresponding numbers for the same sessions were one hundred and twenty and one hundred and twenty-two. The third largest membership was attached to the Methodist church,—the corresponding numbers were eighty-eight and one hundred and thirty-seven. All these figures would be very much increased by counting also the number of students in affiliation with these denominations. The Baptist membership and affiliation followed the Methodist at some distance, while the number for each of the other religious bodies was much smaller.

The percentage of the attendance in the University, during these sessions, which was allied with some form of religious worship, in a more or less active way, ranged from sixty-nine to seventy-five. During the session of 1916–17, the proportion, in actual numbers, stood as follows:

	<i>Members</i>	<i>Affiliated</i>
Episcopal	264	56
Methodist	175	59
Presbyterian	150	44
Baptist	128	44
Disciples	38	4
Hebrew	18	16
Catholic	37	2
Lutherans	15	2
Remainder	15	8

In 1917–18, with the exception of thirty-two students, the entire number enrolled were either actual members of some sect, or were openly affiliated with some denomination,—a total of ninety-six and a half per cent. of the whole registration.

As late as 1915–16, the old plan of inviting distinguished clergymen to deliver sermons in the chapel was still in force,—during that session, twenty-nine appeared before the University congregation; but the popularity

of these services had been steadily declining, under the pressure of new local conditions. The presence of an Episcopal church on the boundary line of the precincts, the ease with which the edifices of the other denominations,—Baptist, Methodist, Presbyterian, Catholic, and Lutheran,—situated in Charlottesville, could be reached by trolley-car, united to draw away the religious audiences that had formerly filled the pews of the University chapel. So small grew these audiences, even when famous clergymen from other communities were announced to speak, that it became difficult to induce ministers of the gospel to accept an invitation to occupy that pulpit. Finally, a state almost of vacuum was arrived at, and the unbroken succession of clergymen disappeared from this time forward, along with the former appointed chaplains. The University had practically reverted to the condition which prevailed at the start,—dependence was now placed upon an occasional invited clergyman from a distance, or a local minister of the gospel, for the ministrations which only persons of that cloth can give.

But the work of the Young Men's Christian Association never slackened in zeal, energy, and intelligence, and its beneficence only increased in power with the passage of the years. Professor Forrest, of the School of Biblical History and Literature, estimated that, in a list of one hundred and thirty-three alumni engaged in religious service in 1915-16, twelve Christian denominations, with the Jewish church added, were represented; that seventeen of these alumni were bishops; that fifty-three were professors or presidents of theological seminaries or church colleges; that seventy-five were heads of conspicuous city congregations; and that forty-two had won distinction in religious journalism and authorship.

Previous to 1905, two hundred Protestant Episcopal

rectors, one hundred Presbyterian pastors, seventy-five Baptist, thirty Methodist, ten Lutheran, and thirty-five ministers of other churches, had been educated in the University of Virginia. Statistics submitted in the convention of the Students' Voluntary Movement for Foreign Missions, held in Rochester, N. Y., in 1910, revealed that, up to that time, the University of Virginia had despatched sixty representatives to the foreign field,—the largest number sent out by any State university, and a larger number than had been dedicated to that work by the majority of the purely denominational seats of learning.

The religious record of the University of Virginia, during the first one hundred years of its history, is now completed. In the early part of that long period, it was harried by idle or malignant aspersions of infidelity,—aspersions that had no broader or more stable footing than the fact that the institution, following the wise regulation of its founder, declined to give the slightest countenance to the preponderance of any one church, although recognizing, with respect and dignity, the existence of all the evangelical sects by the annual appointments to the chaplaincy, and, afterwards, by the monthly invitations to the chapel pulpit. Through the whole of that pregnant interval, the balance between the denominations was never shaken,—in fact, a perfect impartiality to them all was shown by the authorities at the very time that veneration for the religion which they all represented in common, governed the entire course of the institution, from decade to decade, without intermission and without divergence.

Some of the noblest men who ever proclaimed the gospel of Christ and ministered to the spiritual needs of their fellows, occupied, at one time or another, the office of

chaplain of the University, and as such performed all the duties of faithful disciples of the great exemplar whom they held up so earnestly to imitation. Indeed, there are few spots within the confines of the oldest of all the commonwealths where more eloquent or more comforting words have fallen from sanctified lips than under the gothic roof which still stands in the shadow of the Rotunda,—a lasting monument, in its erection, to the unwearied devotion and cheerful self-sacrifice of professors and students alike in the cause of religious principle and religious aspiration. The whole record of the Young Men's Christian Association at the University of Virginia is a record of successful service in every province of benevolent endeavor, pursued session after session, and passed on from one wave of young men to the next, with ever-rising enthusiasm, and ever-growing breadth of view, and ever-increasing practical wisdom. That record alone would confer a noble distinction upon that great institution even if it could point to no splendid triumphs of scholarship, and to no long roll of celebrated alumni.

XXXVIII. *Student Life — Spiritual Side, Continued*

We have seen that, during the Seventh and Eighth Periods, 1865–1904, there was a recurring apprehension that, with the stealing in of new influences, it would be impossible to maintain the Honor System in its original vigor and purity. By the opening of the Ninth Period, this feeling had grown to such a degree that it was thought that prompt and emphatic steps should be taken to give the new matriculate instruction in the character of the code, as well as to impress upon him the necessity of its strict and uninterrupted enforcement. We have already referred to the rule which the Young Men's Christian

Association adopted, of sending out, year after year, a team of trained speakers, drawn from its own membership, to deliver addresses on the Honor System of the University before the pupils of those secondary schools, both public and private, which contributed the most students to that institution annually. Within the same province of spiritual education were the speeches on the same topic pronounced at the mass-meeting of the first-year matriculates at the beginning of each session.

Why was it that, as time lapsed, there arose this fear that the Honor System would grow feeble in its appeal in the very scene of its birth? that this tangible governing force would lose its authority and slowly perish? The Honor System reached its pinnacle during the Seventh Period, 1865-1895. What was supposed to have been the cause of this flourishing condition? It was thought that the cause was to be found in the fact that the community of students was then small; that it was singularly homogeneous; and that it was also sensitively alive to every question of personal integrity and honesty. Would the system continue to prosper when the same community had trebled, and quadrupled, and quintupled? Could that community show this great increase without drawing upon heterogeneous sources of supply, and without tapping new and promiscuous reservoirs, both Northern and Southern? And would it be possible to assimilate this confused and incongruous personal material to a degree where all would regard the traditions of the University with loyalty and veneration?

The mass of students matriculating at the beginning of the Ninth Period, and during the years that followed, hailed back to a wider territory, and had been brought up under much more diverse social influences, than was the case with the attendance even a quarter of a century

earlier. Could these young men in a body be persuaded, or forced, to look upon any college rule or tradition from the same point of view? Here was a purely spiritual code of principles, an unwritten, and, in some respects, not a clearly defined regulation. Could it be taken in intelligently by this inharmonious assemblage, which was not only lacking in a common social origin, but was also largely drawn from corners of the land, remote in sympathy as well as in distance, and trained in different seats of scholarship, ranging all the way from the public high school to the college? As their number increased, the life of the undergraduate tended to grow more complex and its interests more conflicting; above all, there was an augmented disposition to fall into cliques,—a fact that was hostile to the creation of any general public sentiment, and also destructive to the self-government of the students as one body. To make the enforcement of the system more difficult, the Faculty itself expanded in membership; it too was recruited from widely separated communities; and year by year counted fewer and fewer alumni in its ranks. The contact of the professors with the students steadily grew less intimate and less sympathetic than had been once discernible; and however much respected for learning and fidelity, the influence of the new teachers was less direct and less powerful.

In spite of all these apparent obstructions to the vigorous maintenance of the system, there is no evidence that its hold upon the zealous consideration of the students as a body has weakened. “During the past twenty years,” said Professor Echols, in 1914, “they have upheld the system; but eternal vigilance has been absolutely necessary to its preservation.”

It has been noticed that such violations of the code as

have occurred have been the acts of matriculates in their first year, who were not yet fully imbued with the spirit of the older collegians. Professor Lile said in a memorable address, delivered a few years ago, that, in the course of the nineteen years which then measured his incumbency of one of the chairs in the department of law, only six students of that department, of the two thousand who had passed under his eye, had been accused of cheating on examination; and that one of these six had protested his innocence. "I was the executive of the University of Virginia for eight years," remarked Professor Thornton in a speech delivered in New Orleans, in 1916, "and as such charged with the discipline of the institution. More than four thousand matriculates came before me, and there were not a few cases where strict measures were needed. Among all these, only one man ever told me a lie, and he came back the next morning and confessed. I find among the students of my department now the same respect for truth, the same code of honor. Greater numbers have called into being more systematic rules for dealing with violations of the code, but there seems no relaxation of its sacred bond."

The correctness of this assertion is confirmed by the eagerness of the influential students to enlarge the scope of the system. In 1905, the chief officers of the different classes united in such a recommendation. "The Honor System," said President Charles M. Fauntleroy, of the medical department, "really requires that a man shall conduct himself honorably at all times, whether in or out of the examination-room." This was also the opinion expressed by President Samuel B. Woods, of the academic department, President Burford, of the law, and President Brant, of the engineering; and the four joined

in urging that all students guilty of destroying property should be summoned before the Honor Committee and punished summarily.

There was a feeling of resentment among the students, in 1909, when the Faculty expelled two young men for breaking the lamps within the University precincts,—it was thought by them that the trial and dismissal of these culprits should have been left to the Honor Committee. Indeed, they were so sensitive about their right of self-government that they protested against the resolution adopted by the Faculty, in 1912, which forbade them from holding any more soirées on the college grounds. An elaborate report was drafted, and a constitution prepared, which provided for a complete system of self-government among the students; but the whole scheme, when referred to the Honor Committee, was judged by the members of that body to be premature, and it, therefore, failed to receive their approval. This effort to extend the scope of the Honor System was probably thought by the committee to have reached a metaphysical point where it smacked of impracticability.

Could the Honor System be made to cover the offenses of drunkenness, gambling, and dissoluteness? Professor Graves, in an address to the students in 1915, suggested that a code of duty should be set up side by side with the code of honor, which should cause every student who was guilty of any one of these vices to lose caste with his associates. The fermenting sentiment on these subjects seemed to have arrived at the following conclusion: that it was within the province of the Faculty to inflict punishment for an act of drunkenness or of gambling, or of dissoluteness; but that it was only within the province of the Honor Committee to add to this punishment if the stu-

dent had bound himself to abstain from indulgence and afterwards had broken his pledge.

The principles of the Honor Code were also applicable to athletics. Every candidate for a place on the team was required to come in person before the committee of the Faculty, and draw up in writing a statement of the extent of his previous activities in this sphere; and if he was found subsequently to have inserted a falsehood, this delinquency was passed upon by the presidents of the classes, and his immediate departure from the precincts demanded and enforced.

An abnormal trial was held in 1907, which, apparently, was not taken, later on, as a precedent. A student had been charged by his fellows with cheating on an examination; and his case, as was customary, was brought before the class presidents; but when an adverse sentence was given, he promptly appealed to a special bench composed of five of the alumni. One of these was the judge of the Corporation Court of Charlottesville; two were practitioners at that bar; the fourth was the principal of a boys' school; and the fifth, a member of the University Faculty. The trial was conducted in the strictest harmony with the requirements of judicial dignity; the president of the culprit's class served as prosecutor; and the accused was represented by his own counsel. He was able to prove his guiltlessness of the offense.

Ordinarily, there seems to have been no right of appeal from the decision of the class presidents. The rule that prevailed in 1909, was, that, while the trial was in progress, only the members of the accused's class could attend; that, although both sides,—the accuser and the accused,—could be represented by student counsel, no one was to be permitted to speak besides the accused him-

self; and that his guilt was only to be taken as demonstrated should five members of the Honor Committee vote, in a secret ballot, adversely to his innocence. The vice-president of his class always participated in the hearing and the sentence. It was the right of the supposed culprit to call for a public trial if he desired it; but this was rarely claimed.

In 1917, the original provisions of the Honor System were added to in at least one detail,—during that year, the rule was adopted, that, after an accused student was convicted, each president should call together all enrolled in his department in a mass-meeting, in order to announce the name of the dismissed culprit, and the character and circumstances of his offense, with a warning that this communication was not to be repeated beyond the precincts. If the guilty one had fled from college upon the first charge, without demanding trial, his name, and the nature of his act, were to be reported to the president of his department by the original accusers. Following such notification, the Honor Committee were expected to publish and record the facts just as if the case had been sifted before them.

XXXIX. *Student Life — Economic Side*

During the Ninth Period, the students who were registered from Virginia continued to be exempt from tuition fees in all the academic courses, except the laboratory one in chemistry. There was a small special fee in certain branches of natural philosophy, analytical chemistry, and geology. The matriculation fee, which had amounted to forty dollars, had been, by this time, cut down to ten. There was still a small deposit for contingent expenses; and a still smaller fee for entrance examinations. By students enrolled from other States,

the former fees for tuition, together with the laboratory fees, were still payable; and they were also liable for the matriculation fees without reduction.

In 1904-05, the fee for one year in six classes of the law department was one hundred dollars; in more than six classes, one hundred and fifteen; if less, the fee ranged from eighty-five for five classes down to twenty-five for one. In the department of medicine, at this time, the fees descended, during the four-year course, from one hundred and ten, in the first year, to sixty in the fourth. The special fees, at their highest, did not exceed thirty-five dollars, or at their lowest, fall below ten. In the department of engineering, the tuition fee for one course in applied mathematics was twenty-five dollars; in two or more, fifty. The student following the regular line of instruction for the degree of engineer was required to pay a tuition fee of seventy-five dollars in the first year, sixty-five in the second, sixty in the third, and fifty in the fourth. The fees for the first year and second year were increased during the session of 1905-06.

In 1908-09, there were three small fees which had to be paid in all the departments: (1) the special examination fee; (2) the delinquent registration fee, which was demanded of every student who had failed to come forward for registration during the first three days of the session, or on the first week day after the expiration of the Christmas holidays; (3) the re-examination fee, payable by a student who had fallen below the minimum per cent. for graduation, but not below seventy-five, and who had petitioned for another opportunity to test his knowledge when he should return in the following September. None of these fees exceeded five dollars in amount.

The matriculation fee,— which, in 1915-16, amounted

to forty dollars for the student registered from another State beside Virginia, ten dollars for the Virginian enrolled in the academic department, and twenty if enrolled in the engineering,—entitled the payer to the use of the general library, the advantages of the gymnasium and its baths, the instruction of the director of physical culture, and the attendance of the University physician, in case of sickness. Two dollars, with the student's consent, were deducted from the contingent fee for the advancement of the religious work of the institution, and the support of the chapel services. The male teachers and superintendents of public schools were admitted to the classes, during the last three months of the session, without the burden of the usual fees; and this exemption, throughout the nine months, was allowed to all ministers of the gospel and candidates for holy orders.

The aggregate fees paid by each academic student, according to his department, in 1915-16, were as follows: in the college, if a Virginian, twenty dollars; if not a Virginian, one hundred and thirty-five. These figures did not include the charges for apparatus and laboratory. In the department of law the aggregate fees were one hundred and fifty; of medicine, one hundred and fifty also; and of engineering, ninety-five, if the student was a Virginian, and one hundred and fifty-five if he was not.

Students now, as formerly, were permitted to lodge and obtain their meals within the University precincts, or at their homes, or in boarding-houses situated without the bounds, just as they might prefer.

In 1907, the ground was broken for a new dining-hall at a spot situated at the south end of West Range. It was expected that this establishment would lead to a reduction in the board; that it would bring most of the students together three times daily, and thus create a col-

lege centre to promote intimacy; and that it would offer a place for alumni banquets, fraternity dinners, and dinners in honor of distinguished guests. It was estimated that the structure would impose an outlay in building of forty-five to fifty thousand dollars. The plan adopted at first was to leave the management to a students' committee, which was to look to certain members of the Faculty for general advice. Upon this committee was to rest the responsibility for the catering and for the maintenance of economy and care in each department. The monthly charge for board was to be fixed at ten dollars,—omitting, however, the expense of meats, which were to be paid for *a la carte*. There was to be ample accommodation for three hundred seats at table in the hall; and the building was expected to be thrown open by September, 1908. In reality, it was finished by June of that year.

In the course of the session of 1908-09, two hundred and twenty-two students ate their meals at the Commons; but by November, 1909, this number had receded to one hundred and forty. During 1910-11, there were one hundred and sixty seated at the tables, and during 1911-12, one hundred and eighty-three. This was about twenty-five per cent. of the entire University registration for that year; but this proportion was not satisfactory, in spite of the fact that all those students who occupied rooms in Randall Hall and on East Range were now required to engage board in the Commons dining-room. To such tenants, a reduction of their room-rent to one-half the usual amount was allowed; but if the young men eating their meals there had obtained their rooms in other sections of the University dormitories, the cut in the room-rent was one fourth only. These privileges would indicate that the expectations from the Commons

had so far turned out to be disappointing. This failure was attributed at the time to the existence of three inimical facts: (1) lack of experience in the managers; (2) hostility of the boarding-house keepers; and (3) the suspicious attitude of the many students who considered the Commons superfluous.

At first, the enterprise was an integral part of the University economics. The bursar paid the bills, and he sold the boarders the tickets which were issued monthly. It was calculated, in 1909, that the cost of the supplies would amount to \$22,687.89, and the operating expenses to \$8,433.32. The income from the main sources apparently did not exceed \$28,946.59.

The first arrangement worked so unsatisfactorily that it was decided to be best to lease the dining-hall to some one who would take on himself the responsibility for the payment and collection of bills, without looking beyond the boarders for his compensation. It was to assure him a definite number that the provision was retained requiring the tenants of certain dormitories to occupy seats at his table; but this regulation was subsequently revoked. For his benefit, the monthly charge for board was advanced from thirteen dollars and fifty cents to fifteen dollars. The independent system went into operation in September, 1912; and in the following spring, a mass-meeting of the boarders was held to protest against the meanness and shortness of the food and the poor character of the management under the Frenchman then in control, who received the remonstrance with a gesture of fiery defiance. At this time, the cost of board in private houses ranged from fifteen dollars to twenty each month; and the food there was probably superior to that of the Commons, both in quality and quantity.

In 1904-05, the rent of the dormitories ranged from twenty-five dollars to forty for the session. Each student, whether one or two occupied a room, paid nine dollars for service during the nine months. In 1907-08, the rent of the dormitories ranged from thirty dollars to fifty for that length of time. The cost of furnishing an apartment was now estimated at fifteen dollars, while the expense of fuel and light amounted, on the average, to twenty-five for the nine months, and of laundry, to fourteen.

During 1910-11, certain reductions in the fixed rents of the dormitories were, as we have seen, granted to those students who occupied seats at the Commons tables. A majority of the rooms now had been made more convenient and comfortable by the introduction of steam-heat and electricity; and for these, the general charge had been increased very substantially,—thus all the dormitories on East Lawn and West Lawn, which possessed this addition, were now rented for \$74.75 apiece; on West Range, for \$71.50; on Dawson's Row, for \$72.00; and on Monroe Hill, for \$54.00. These were the full rates. The reduction in the rents for the boarders at Commons was fixed at twenty-five per cent.—for instance, the rooms on East Range were rented to such boarders for \$53.00; the single rooms in Randall's Building for \$35.00; and the double for \$40.00. There was a small advance in the charges for most of the dormitories before the end of the session 1915-16.

The occupants of all these apartments had to supply their own furniture at their own expense. The cost of furnished rooms beyond the precincts at this time ranged from five dollars to twenty monthly.

XL. *Student Life — Economic Side, Continued*

What were the total expenses by the session of a student who had matriculated in the academic, or in any one of the vocational departments? The amount, as was to be expected, differed from year to year; and it was also dependent upon the habits of the individual collegian. Let us begin with the interval between 1904 and 1907. Placing the lowest figure for living charges only at \$135.00 and the highest at \$270.00, we find that the expenses of the academic student, during these years, varied from \$265.00 to \$400.00; of the law student, from \$320.00 to \$455.00; of the medical, from \$283.00 to \$423.00; of the engineering, from \$265.00 to \$425.00; of the agricultural, from \$265.00 to 400.00. In 1908-09, the figures for the members of the professional classes were as follows: in the engineering department, the total expenses for the Virginian ranged from \$255.00 to \$374.00, and for the non-Virginian, from \$303.00 to \$419.00; in the department of law, the total expenses ranged from \$342.00 to \$469.00; and in the department of medicine, from \$310.00 to \$432.00.

In 1911-12, the total expenses of the Virginian student in the college and graduate departments varied from \$220.00 to \$355.00; of the non-Virginian from \$345.00 to \$480.00. In the department of law, the total expenses of the student, whether Virginian or non-Virginian, ranged from \$375.00 to \$520.00, and in the department of medicine, from \$355.00 to \$490.00. There was some divergence between the total expenses of the Virginian and the non-Virginian in the department of engineering,— the range of the former was from \$295.00 to \$430.00, and of the latter, from \$345.00 to \$480.00. During this session, the general average in all the departments was \$368.61, distributed as follows:

board, \$149.90; room, \$73.35; books, \$33.51; tuition for the non-Virginian, \$91.85; and incidentals, \$20.00.

During 1915-16, about seventy-two students, who had registered from Virginia, kept their total expenses within the pale of two hundred and thirty dollars, while fifteen had made buckle and tongue meet although they had spent only two hundred. About forty had disbursed approximately five hundred and fifty dollars. The average for three hundred and sixteen young men was five hundred and twenty-five. One student reported a personal expenditure of three thousand dollars. During this session, the authoritative statistics demonstrated that the total expenses of the Virginian in the college department ranged from \$375.00 to \$520.00; and in the medical department, from \$345.00 to \$480.00; of the Virginian in the graduate department, from \$220.00 to \$355.00, and of the non-Virginian from \$325.00 to \$460.00; of the Virginian in the engineering department, from \$290.00 to \$425.00, and of the non-Virginian, from \$350.00 to \$485.00. The total expenses of the student, whether Virginian or non-Virginian in the department of law, ranged from \$375.00 to \$520.00; and in the medicine department, from \$355.00 to \$490.00.

As these statements of expenses, beginning with 1904-05, were based on careful and accurate investigation, it is to be inferred that the great body of young men at the University were economical in their outlay; and that no forms of pecuniary extravagance found in practice any encouragement there. After the World War began, there was noted a rise in the cost of living, but the fixed charges of the student disclosed little variation.

We have alluded in former volumes to the anxiety exhibited by the University authorities to extend all the assistance in their power to deserving students who lacked

the means to pay the established fees at the beginning of the session. A Faculty Student Self-Help Committee, organized by President Alderman, and a similar bureau maintained by the Young Men's Christian Association, were indefatigable in their attention to this feature of the students' welfare. In 1904-05, the positions obtained for them were those of choir-leader, organist, assistant-librarian, table-waiter, clothes-presser, reader, stenographer, typewriter, and clerical assistant. Other positions secured were those of attendant in lecture-room or laboratory, gardener, clerk in a book-store, and furnace boy. A considerable number of students found employment in Charlottesville as teachers, clerks, telegraphers, and newspaper carriers.

In 1906-07, when seven hundred and eighty-six young men matriculated, answers were received from three hundred and forty-seven as to how they had acquired or were still acquiring, the means to defray their expenses in college. It seems that sixty were then earning an income from some form of writing; twenty-nine, from teaching; seven from clerical, and five from ministerial work; and eighteen from miscellaneous tasks. About eighty-eight had procured the necessary funds before entering the University,—some by teaching, some by clerical labor, some by engineering jobs, some by employment in business, and the remainder in more general ways. Fifty-nine had borrowed the money to meet the charges.

The occupations in which needy students engaged at the University, during the following session, consisted of sale and newspaper agencies, field engineering, reporting for *College Topics*, tending cows or horses, packing cigars, copying law notes, composing stories for magazines, laboring on farms, or taking part in the

remunerative activities of the Young Men's Christian Association. Some of the young men of this session, before matriculating, had earned money as hospital stewards, distributing druggists, assistants to physicians, time-keepers, operators in factories, mail-carriers, deputy collectors of the revenue, chauffeurs, express agents, sailing masters and osteopaths. The quantity of money gathered up by them in these ways was estimated at \$23,232; the sums earned by others after matriculation amounted to \$18,600; while the sums borrowed reached a total of \$20,119.

In 1911-12, thirty-five per cent. of the students enrolled replied to an inquiry as to whether they were defraying their expenses in whole or in part. Thirty-four per cent. of those answering were found to be in either the one or the other category. The proportion was larger than had formerly been observed,—a difference probably due to the increase in the number of matriculates who had received their secondary education in the public schools. Of the two hundred and seventy-five replying, about eighty-five had paid their expenses by means of borrowed money. Most of this latter group were registered either in the college or in the law department. The sums thus obtained amounted to \$24,000. About thirty per cent. of those reporting had met more than one-half of the charges with the proceeds of employments pursued before enrolment. These employments had brought in a total of \$16,841, and consisted of such activities as athletics, watch-making, farming, railroad-work, church-work, engineering work, journalism, real estate, and the like. The occupations followed after matriculation were those of clerks, teachers, library assistants, stenographers, me-

chanics, journalists, book-keepers, assistants to boarding-houses, and agents for the Young Men's Christian Association.

During the session of 1912-13, sixty-two students earned \$8,116 after entering the University; eighty-seven, before entering, had accumulated the joint sum of \$16,801; and eighty-five had borrowed \$5,333 to cover their necessary expenses. The Faculty's committee on self-help reported, in 1916, that a large proportion of the young men who had matriculated during that session, had, by their own industry, acquired the means to defray every charge. About eight hundred and sixty-five had responded to the inquiry, and of this number, fifty-three per cent. were discovered to be not self-supporting, while about forty-six per cent. were found to be at least partly self-supporting. The amount which had been earned before enrolment was \$47,850, and afterwards, in the course of the nine months, \$24,902.

By an act of the General Assembly in 1908,—the bill having been introduced by Senator A. E. Strode,—a loan fund was created in the University for the benefit of needy and deserving Virginian students who desired to pursue courses in the academic department. In 1909, an alumnus of Harvard gave the institution the sum of five thousand dollars, in recognition of the friendship which had always existed between the two seats of learning. The interest from this fund was to be loaned to one or more destitute young men who were anxious to follow a line of study in some one of the schools of the University. In 1908-10, sixteen gave their notes for periods extending from five years to nine months, and obtained through them loans ranging respectively from fifty to one hundred dollars. Five years afterwards, a fund of ten thousand dollars was presented to

the institution by an anonymous admirer of General Robert E. Lee. The interest to accrue from this fund was to be reserved for advances to poor students who were registered in any one of the departments. There were several additions to these loans funds,—thus in 1914-15, Fairfax Harrison, President of the Southern Railway, contributed two hundred dollars, and the Lynchburg Alumni Chapter, the same amount, for their further enlargement. In 1915, five hundred dollars was given by the Seven Club, and seven hundred and fifty by Sarah E. Wright, for the same purpose.

XLI. *Student Life — Social Side*

Throughout the Ninth Period, 1904-19, the town of Charlottesville continued to be too limited in population to swallow up the University socially, or even from that point of view to influence it to any sensible extent. The evolution of the University community had, during this interval, gone forward along lines peculiar to itself, with as little modification or expansion, through pressure from the outside, as had been perceptible during the earlier periods. What was the most important alteration which the progress of time had brought to the social life of the students from the operation of those subtle influences which had arisen from their own ranks? In former years, as we have seen, every matriculate stood upon a footing that was not in the slightest degree affected by the length of his association with the institution. The collegian who had only recently been admitted for the first time occupied a social position equal in every general respect to that of his contemporary who had returned for his second or third or even sixth year. All were sons of the University of Virginia, and as such were not separated by a

hedge of sentimental discriminations springing from length of stay or from class division. One student might be more industrious and more acquisitive than another, or more brilliant in intellect or more winning in manner. These were real distinctions which had always existed, but, formerly, no artificial ones were superimposed upon them to make the social gulf between individual and individual wider than nature had intended.

During the Ninth Period, there arose a hypercritical attitude among the students who had passed their initial session, which tended to deprive the first-year matriculate of that equality of social standing which he had always possessed in former times. "What is the justification for the coolness at the University of Virginia towards new men?" asked an observer in 1905-06. "Why should the old men receive the new men with so much aloofness? The new man enters a self-governing student body, and gradually learns what is desired of him, and learns to conform to it. A man can wear any hat he chooses; but there are things he cannot do; and this is enforced by the attitude of the old men." Possibly, this jealous posture towards the first-year student had its incitement in that steady increase in the number of first-year matriculates which became so noticeable with the progress of the Ninth Period. Unless some frankly restrictive influence was brought to bear, would there not be danger that the power of these swarming first-year men could not be restrained; and that, in their rawness, they might be inclined to treat the spirit of the old college social traditions with silent neglect, if not with open contempt?

But, however much disposed the young men who had passed their first year might be sternly to teach their supposed place to those who had recently entered, it was not

for a moment forgotten by them that it was from the group of matriculates in their first session that the fraternities and societies and clubs were to be recruited. It was this fact which moderated the superior, if not supercilious, bearing of the older men, who were anxious to fill up the gaps which, from year to year, existed in the ranks of those associations at the beginning of every autumn. And new associations were being constantly formed, which made the draft upon the new students all the more important. "When," asked the editors of *College Topics*, in 1905, "will this increase in the number of the University fraternities stop?" At this time, about eighteen of the foremost organizations of that type in the United States were represented at the University of Virginia. Among those which established chapters there after 1904 were the Phi Rho Sigma, Theta Nu Epsilon, Phi Sigma Kappa, Sigma Phi Epsilon, Alpha Chi Rho, Delta Phi, Delta Chi, Theta Chi, Zeta Beta Tau, and Phi Epsilon Pi.

In our history of anterior periods, we described the general social character of the fraternities taken as a body. It will not be necessary to add to this description in our account of the Ninth Period, as time brought no salient alterations in their tendencies. There are other features, however, which have a high degree of interest of their own. Of the forty-five hundred members of the academic department enrolled between 1905 and 1917, twenty-one hundred belonged to the associations which were distinctly fraternal. This proportion represented less than one-half of the entire number. Of the twenty-seven hundred and forty-nine young men registered in the law department, eighteen hundred and sixty-six had belonged to these associations also. This indicated that twice as many of the students of that de-

partment had been enrolled in the fraternities as had not been enrolled. In the department of medicine, there were seven hundred and ninety-three who had been members, and four hundred and fifty-three who had not been; in the engineering department, the corresponding figures were five hundred and ninety-seven and six hundred and seventy-five. It was only in this particular department that the students who had not been members exceeded in number those who had been. In all the departments,, taken as a whole, there were, during this long interval, 5358 who had been members, and 4475 who had not been members, of the fraternal associations of all kinds. In this list, the membership of the civic clubs, musical clubs, German clubs, athletic clubs, State, city, and school clubs, and debating societies, has not been counted.

In 1911, an inter-fraternity agreement was drawn up which required that no association of that character should directly or indirectly go so far as to invite a first-year student to become a member of it until after the fifteenth of January. When nine o'clock of the evening of that day had passed, such an invitation could be delivered; but it must be drafted in writing and accompanied by the request that the answer should be delayed forty-eight hours. Eighteen fraternities adopted this rule; but before a year had gone by, that rule had been substantially modified,—it was then provided that, between midnight of October 14 and midnight of October 19, fraternity claims could be discussed with a prospective member; and that, after that hour of the latter day, a private invitation in writing could be mailed to him, but with the information that he could, if he wished, defer his reply until two o'clock in the afternoon of October 29. This extremely formal arrangement

proved unsatisfactory: first, because at least four fraternities had refused to become parties to the agreement,—a fact which gave them an open field; and secondly, because the competition which followed was thought to be more detrimental to the kindly intercourse of the fraternities than the old custom which permitted all to seek as they pleased.

In 1908, the Board of Visitors offered to lease a site on the University grounds to the Kappa Sigma for the erection of a fraternity-house, and to loan them the sum of \$12,000 for its construction. It was not until March apparently that this association was ready to accept this advance,—permission was then also given to the members of both the Sigma Chi and the Delta Tau Delta to build. The Kappa Alpha, the Phi Delta Theta, and the Sigma Chi took possession of new homes after 1908–09. The house belonging to the Phi Delta Theta was situated on Rugby Road, while the one belonging to the Sigma Chi was situated in University Place. The Chi Phi occupied a bungalow in Madison Lane. The Beta Theta Pi acquired new quarters on Preston Heights, the Delta Phi and Sigma Phi Epsilon, in Chancellor Street, and the Sigma Alpha Epsilon in Fourteenth Street. The house of the Phi Kappa Sigma, standing in Madison Lane, had cost nearly nineteen thousand dollars, while the houses of the Kappa Sigma and the Delta Tau Delta,—both situated on Carr's Hill,—had each been erected at an outlay of twenty thousand.

In December, 1912, the proposal to construct a road around the north-west side of this hill was approved by the Board, in the expectation that it would create room for new fraternity homes. The Delta Kappa Epsilon took advantage of the completion of the work to build a house for its own members on the line of this new

public way. The Phi Kappa Psi established a home in University Place, and the Pi Kappa Alpha and the Alpha Tau Omega respectively on Rugby Road. There were few fraternities in the University which had not, by 1916, either erected, purchased, or rented a spacious and well situated house either within the precincts or in the vicinage. This was the result chiefly of a desire on their part to draw the personal relations of their members closer together than had been possible when those members resided in dormitories at a distance from each other, and came together only occasionally. The new homes also possessed all the modern conveniences and comforts. It was thought that the fraternities, in their enjoyment of all these new advantages, had encouraged rather than discouraged a more sociable feeling among the students; nor had their existence fostered any bad feeling between the members and non-members of such associations,—indeed, there were too many members in the aggregate to raise the supposition that a rigid policy of selection had been followed; and in addition, it was generally known that there were many desirable young men in the University who had declined the invitations to join these associations.

What was the standing of the fraternities in the province of scholarship? In 1910–11, the highest grade attained, namely, eighty-one, was attained by the Sigma Chi; and in 1911–12, the highest, namely, 84.6, was attained by the Delta Psi. The lowest grade reached by any fraternity during this session was 69.7. Nine of the twenty-three fraternities in existence at this time attained grades that ranged between 84.6 and 80.1, and thirteen, between 80.1 and 70. One fraternity alone fell below the last figure. In 1912–13, the highest grade reached, namely, 84.9, was reached by the Delta

Tau Delta; the lowest reached was 70.2. In 1913-14, the highest grade attained, namely, 87.6, was attained by the Kappa Alpha; the lowest grade attained was 76. In 1914-15, the Delta Chi led with a grade of 86, while the lowest reached was 74.5. In 1914-15, Zeta Beta Tau led with a grade of 87.7, followed at the lowest point by another fraternity with a grade of 75.4. Twenty of these associations, during this session, attained grades that ranged between 87.7 and 80.7. The following table records the grades of students who were members of the fraternities as compared with the grades of those who were not members:

<i>Departments</i>	<i>Fraternity Grade Average</i>				
	<i>1910-11</i>	<i>1911-12</i>	<i>1913-14</i>	<i>1914-15</i>	<i>1915-16</i>
College	67.6	73.5	78.2	80.3	78.
Graduate	79.5	84.3	86.3	85.7	87.5
Law	78.8	82.9	84.3	84.6	85.2
Medicine	82.9	64.9	77.7	75.2	77.
Engineering	72.6	70.7	82.5	88.4	87.8

<i>Departments</i>	<i>Non Fraternity Grade Average</i>				
	<i>1910-11</i>	<i>1911-12</i>	<i>1913-14</i>	<i>1914-15</i>	<i>1915-16</i>
College	68.5	77.2	80.1	81.4	80.6
Graduate	74.5	86.	84.7	87.1	87.4
Law	84.5	86.1	84.3	84.8	85.7
Medicine	82.9	83.3	76.3	77.8	84.5
Engineering	72.7	75.3	84.8	86.8	86.4

The most conspicuous ribbon societies, during the Ninth Period, were still the Eli Banana, the Tilka, and the Zeta. In 1904-05, the Eli Banana counted a membership of twenty; and that number continued to increase until, by 1917, it had grown to thirty-three. The corresponding membership of Tilka was twenty-seven and twenty-nine, while that of the others did not vary materially during this interval. A critic of these soci-

eties asserted, with some acerbity, in 1913, that "they denoted class." "Whenever an exponent of these beaumonts is discovered," he continued, "he is placarded with a cloth decoration. The ribbon societies include many leaders in college life, especially those who can scintillate at a pink tea or go through a ten course dinner without missing the right fork. No athlete, however great, without a touch of fashion, can get in. Fame even is not an open sesame."

From this slightly sour comment, it is to be inferred that the ribbon societies had jealously maintained their original exclusiveness. The Germans were still controlled by them; and they were predominant in all the elections for officers of the General Athletic Association. Their grasping spirit quite naturally aroused a feeling of bitterness beyond the pale of their own coteries. It was pointed out, in reproach to them, that, at Yale, the highest honor was membership in one of the seven societies. Did these societies content themselves with admitting to their circle only social favorites? No. Their members were elected because they were already captains of the teams, the foremost scholars of the classes, the successful editors, the most skilful debaters, — in short, the men whose standing was broadly based on the reasonable esteem of the entire body of students, and not on the trivial partiality of a few persons banded together in secret organizations. At the University of Virginia, in consequence of the preponderance of these private associations, the class presidents, the debaters, the orators, and the editors were described as "mere incidentals in college." "Why," asked one critic, "has the assistant managership of our athletic teams been almost invariably awarded to ribbon men, and the application of others, better fitted, been turned down? The

answer is, that, so great a hold have the ribbon societies in college, the advisory board every year is made up, almost without exception, of ribbon men."

About 1906, Morgan P. Robinson, in the spirit of a Roman tribune, warmly advocated the recovery by the student body of the political honors which really belonged to them alone; and he also suggested the adoption of a smaller fee for admission to the athletic games. The ribbon societies consented to the reduction of the fee, but seem to have scotched the other purposes of the movement. The fight was renewed in 1907, but without success. The ticket that was then defeated had been nominated by a caucus which represented the students in general, in opposition to the ambitious interests of the fraternities and societies. The ribbon societies especially were stigmatized by their enemies as political organizations of a distinctly ruthless type.

XLII. *Student Life — Social Side, Continued*

Besides the associations known specifically as fraternities and ribbon societies, there were numerous organizations which had been established for one purpose or another. Some of these had been founded anterior to the Ninth Period, and kept up their activities without any diminution of their former energy. Some comprised a membership of students only; some, of students and professors.

The Civic Club was organized in 1909 by students, with the view of arousing an interest in politics; furnishing opportunities for the debate of public questions; investigating social conditions; and encouraging participation in community affairs. The officers were chosen from the student corps; but, in 1912, fifteen of the forty members were recruited from the circle of the

Faculty. The club held its first public meeting in April, 1910; and the question under consideration being female suffrage, addresses were delivered by Miss Costello, of England, and Dr. Anna H. Shaw. In 1911, several members of the club were employed in studying the moral and spiritual life of the population of the Ragged Mountains; and the results of their observations were issued in a printed form, after a searching examination in the privacy of the club meetings. In 1912, Professor Thomas W. Page spoke upon the tariff.

The Medical and Biological Journal Club was organized in 1907 for the conversational discussion of the latest advances in those two sciences. During the first year, only members of the instructing staff were eligible; but, with the session of 1908-09, students were admitted to the bi-monthly proceedings. Subsequently, this club was merged in the Philosophical Society, and thereafter formed its medical and scientific section.

The Philosophical Society had been founded in 1889, but appears to have fallen into neglect. At the suggestion of President Alderman, a scientific society bearing the same name was organized by the professors for the publication of the details of their scientific researches, and for the stimulation of scientific inquiry in all the schools of the University. It was divided into sections: (1) the natural sciences; (2) the medical sciences; and (3) the humanistic sciences. Each section was under the direction of its own officers and committees. The separate sections met frequently, while the general society convened only twice each year,—on which occasions, reports upon the investigations of the different sections were submitted, and the business of the organization, as a whole, transacted. The proceedings were permanently preserved in the form of bulletins. A steady

effort was put forth to interest the students of the graduate department in the topics belonging to the humanistic section. Papers for that section bearing upon such subjects as the ancestry of Abraham Lincoln, the works of Joel Chandler Harris, and the Confederate Constitution, were prepared by young men who were registered in that department.

The aim of the Journalism Club was to impart to its members,—all of whom were students,—practical experience of newspaper composition, without the restraints of academic routine. Some of these members confined their writings to University events, while others contributed frequently to the metropolitan dailies in the form either of special articles or of feature stories. Lectures were delivered before the club by journalists of national distinction.

In 1912, the State clubs were slightly described by *College Topics* "as only shadows"; but most of them still held their annual meetings, and still elected their customary officers. Between 1905 and 1916, there were associations of this character in existence which stood for Georgia, Alabama, Kentucky, New York, Maryland, Texas, Mississippi, Tennessee, Florida, Delaware, Louisiana, North Carolina, South Carolina, Arkansas, California, New Jersey, and West Virginia. Virginia, as a whole, was not represented; but sections, like the Southwest, and counties, like Loudoun and Pittsylvania, were. The only city clubs of this period seem to have been organized by students from Washington, Roanoke, Lynchburg, Petersburg, and Memphis. In the college and school clubs were enrolled the young men who had come from seats of learning ranging all the way from Hampden-Sidney College, College of William and Mary, and the Virginia Military Institute at the top, to the private

and public high schools at the bottom. Among the latter, the Episcopal High School Club, in 1914, possessed a membership of sixty-three, and the Charlottesville High School, a membership of thirty-three. Some of the private high schools,—such as the Cluster Springs Academy, for instance,—could point to an enrolment of only seven. A territorial league was founded in 1913–14, with a membership recruited from the different State and school clubs. Its object was to bring the students together on a footing of geographical sympathy; to create a dignified and valuable publicity for the University as a whole; and to employ all the influence at its command to increase the number of the State, city, and school clubs.

The Menorah Club was a Jewish organization, which strove to encourage ethical living and high thinking among the students of that faith; and it also cooperated very earnestly and energetically with the Young Men's Christian Association in the work done by that association in every branch of social service. St. Paul's Church Club was composed of the Episcopal students. Its most lively dissipation appears to have been a smoker,—on which occasion, persons of distinction delivered appropriate addresses. The Calico Club elected only three officers; namely, the high-keeper of Cupid's bolts, the grand arbiter of social quality, and "the mighty rusher." The Bachelor's Club was the antithesis of the Calico Club, while the Masonic Club was restricted to persons of Masonic affiliations. The Aero Club was organized, in 1909, with a list of members chosen from the body of the Faculty and the students; but apparently their interest in flying did not extend beyond the invitation to some expert to speak before them on aeronautics.

The Politics Club was founded by the young men enrolled in the school of historical, economical, and political science, for the purpose of acquiring a more thorough knowledge of current events. The Scarab Club, the Graduate Club, and the Thirteen Club were organized for reasons more or less shadowed in their names; and so with the Skating Club, the German Club, and the Afternoon Tea Club. There was also the Seven Club.

The Hot Feet held their last celebration, in 1908, in the gymnasium, and from that hour survived only in a tune. It reluctantly disbanded under irresistible pressure from an indignant administrative council, which announced its decision in words of laconic sternness. "The existence of the Hot Feet Society," that body declared, "had been, on the whole, very detrimental to the University's welfare, and it is, therefore, unanimously resolved that the existence of the Hot Feet Society, and of all other organizations which promote disorder in the University, shall be forbidden."

The Virginia Union,—which was founded in 1916,—aimed to correlate all the different undergraduate activities on one common ground; namely, the advancement of the University's welfare. It stimulated communal enterprise; it encouraged a perfectly candid discussion of college questions; and it counseled and actively fostered a closer social intercourse between student and student. Its entertainments were given on Saturday night weekly; and on these occasions, profitable addresses were delivered by speakers of reputation. The membership of the Colonnade Club was limited to the circle of the Faculty, the administrative staff, and the alumni. Its object was to create opportunities that would bring the teachers and officers of the University together more intimately,

and also produce an atmosphere within the precincts that would appeal to returning alumni as animated by the spirit of home.

There were numerous associations in existence at the University of Virginia, during the Ninth Period, which were as distinctly scholastic in their purposes as the majority of the organizations already mentioned were social. The foremost of these was the Beta Chapter of the Phi Beta Kappa, which was founded in September, 1907; but it was not until June, 1908, that the charter was formally delivered by Professor Grosvenor, president of the United Chapters, and accepted by Professor James M. Page, president of the local unit. The election of a student to membership in this body was a proof that he was distinguished for superior scholarship, high character, love of knowledge, and promise of future usefulness. The number of young men admitted annually was limited to one-fifth of the graduating class in the college department; five in the graduate; three in the medical; five in the department of law; and two in the department of engineering. The executive committee,—which was composed of members of the Faculty,—were not authorized to elect more than forty distinguished alumni annually.

The Phi Beta Kappa Society was national in character; the Raven, another organization resting on scholarship, was local. Its enrolment was recruited from the ranks of the leaders of thought and learning in the several departments of the University. The professors were eligible for admission, but the few persons elected from beyond the precincts enjoyed only the privileges of honorary membership. The society convened in the dormitory on West Range which had once been occupied by Edgar Allan Poe; and it was keenly interested, and



practically active, in preserving the memorials of the poet. In 1912, a plan was broached by the society for collecting a fund with which to mark the grave of his mother in the yard of St. John's Church in Richmond; and it is recorded that a concert was given in Madison Hall, several sessions afterwards, to increase the amount which had already been contributed for that purpose. Each ensuing year witnessed valuable additions to the miscellaneous souvenirs of Poe which had been gathered up from time to time for the adornment of his former dormitory.

The club of the law department bore the name of Phi Delta Phi. Its exhibition of "goating" occurred twice a year. The first, which took place at three o'clock on a chosen afternoon in autumn, began with a cavalcade; the horsemen assembled in front of Dawson's Row; and having fallen in, marched off to Lambeth Field, where a game was to be contested. As they entered the gate in columns, the old members occupied the front ranks, while the "goats" brought up the rear mounted ignominiously on mules. All came to a halt on a spot situated at the right of the bleachers; from thence, they advanced around the track, while a lively tune was playing; and when this part of the programme was finished, they left the grounds for the main street of Charlottesville. Down this they proceeded in ranks of twelve; but returned along the same track to the University in single file. The second exhibition began on Saturday night before the inauguration of the Easter gayeties. The first part was celebrated in Cabell Hall, and consisted principally of a burlesque upon the peculiarities of the several law professors; topical songs were also sung and one act plays performed; and when all these entertainments had come to an end, the club adjourned for

their annual banquet. On the next day took place the second initiation of the year, on which occasion, the old members were dressed in red robes or dominoes, and the "goats" in fantastic costumes of brilliant colors. The former on horse-back, the latter on mule-back,—as in the autumn,—marched off to Lambeth Field, where a game was about to be played; and in the course of this game, the "goats" ran a relay race, or hobbled, with lock-step, around the track. Again mounting, the whole body made the circuit of the field in single file, and then departed for town; and after marching the whole length of the main street, they returned to college in order to light up the sky with fire-works so soon as night should fall.

The Phi Rho Sigma, the medical club, held its Easter "goating" in the afternoon. The old members travelled to Lambeth Field in a tallyho to attend the game, while the initiates followed in an ambulance. On the ground, in the spring of 1908, one of the clubmen having suddenly shown acute symptoms of an alarming indisposition, a fellow clubman, clothed in antiseptic dress, rushed to his aid, and by a dexterous incision, extracted a rabbit from his patient's stomach instead of the expected appendix.

The association of the School of Chemistry was the Kappa Delta Mu, and of the engineering department, the Engineering Journal Club. The Sigma Delta Chi was the name borne by the honorary journalistic society. The Theta Kappa Nu fraternity, a national law organization, had established a chapter at the University of Virginia. Its membership, in addition to the professors of the law department, was drawn from the graduating class of that department each year,—with a limitation, however, to the twelve students who had obtained the

highest mark in the course of three terms; and the candidates must also be aspirants for the degree of bachelor of laws. The Phi Alpha Delta, also a national law association, founded a chapter at the University in 1910. The Delta Sigma Rho, which was organized at Chicago, in 1906, for the purpose of encouraging public speaking in the different seats of learning, restricted its membership to young men who had represented their respective institutions in an inter-collegiate contest of oratory or debate, and had actually participated in the collision. A chapter of this fraternity was established at the University of Virginia in 1909.

Skull and Keys and Lambda Pi seem to have been academic associations. In the course of Easter week, the members of the former appeared as convicts under guard; and their custodian was supposed to be always ready to check an incipient mutiny by firing his gun among them point blank. The members of Lambda Pi dressed themselves, on the same occasions, as harlequins, or as other creatures of equal grotesqueness. During the early part of the day, they were kept busy imitating the peculiar call of the cuckoo, while, in the afternoon, attired as chorus girls in sheath gowns and other startling costumes, they drove off merrily to Lambeth Field, in a vehicle conspicuous for its flamboyant adornments.

XLIII. *Student Life — Social Side, Continued*

The claim was asserted for the musical clubs in 1904-05 that they offered students without any athletic aptitudes a chance "to serve the University." The most conspicuous of these were still the Arcadians. When first organized, the performances of the Arcadians were limited to light comedies, which required small casts only; but subsequently, the musical field was entered,

which called for a larger expenditure for both the settings and the participants. The first opera presented was the *Khan of Kathan*, which was followed by the *Conspirators*. Both imposed a more onerous charge than the income of the organization could fully defray. The next two, the *Visiting Girl* and *La Serena*, fell more lightly on its financial resources. The *King of Kong*, a comic opera, was, during a tour of the Virginian cities, received with encouraging applause. This opera had been composed by two alumni, and was placed behind the footlights with a company of University athletes, scholars, and unfledged scientists; the female parts were taken by young men in seductive feminine disguises; and the fidelity of their acting created a good deal of sarcastic merriment. The fifth opera performed by the club was entitled *Turvyland*. This was the composition of a student of the law department; its first appearance took place in Cabell Hall; but the expense which it entailed was so heavy that no money was left to be carried over to the following year. Such a comedy required the vigilant service of an expert coach; and the number of actors indispensable was so great, and the equipment in costume and scenery so voluminous, that the costs, on these various scores, ate up all the pecuniary profit. In consequence, no play was offered in 1910-11.

This fact led to the revival of the Glee Club, an association which had disbanded in 1905. A mass-meeting of all the students interested in music was held; a new vocal and instrumental club organized; and rehearsals at once began. This club was composed of twenty members. It gave two concerts in Cabell Hall and four beyond the precincts. Choruses, quartets, and vocal and instrumental solos, were skilfully rendered. This association failed to re-form in 1912-13 and 1913-14, as

the result of the absence of an experienced and attentive director and manager.

In January, 1915, Professor Hall-Quest, who, during six years, had been in charge of the Princeton Glee Club, undertook to reorganize the old association and train it scientifically. A successful performance was given at Culpeper in 1915. The programme on this occasion consisted of a musical comedy,—a combination of vocal and instrumental music and acting. As it was thought that a dramatic setting was more pleasing to the average audience than a bare and formal concert, special scenery, in 1915-16, was procured, and elaborate costumes purchased, for a comedy of this kind, to be limited to two acts. There were forty-five participants in the performances that followed, of whom thirty belonged to the Glee Club and ten to the Mandolin, with a chorus of six dressed as women. Though nominally independent, the two clubs were under the guidance of the same president, manager, and director.

The editors of the magazine were not satisfied with the University's possession of a Glee Club and a Mandolin Club,—they proposed in 1908-09, that a dramatic club should be organized, of such talent and polyglot learning that its members could act and declaim with success the tragedies of Sophocles and the comedies of Molière, in the original language; and their histrionic capacity might even be tested by their undertaking the exacting parts of *Hamlet* or the *Midsummer Night's Dream*. In 1915, there flourished in college a dramatic club, the principal membership of which had been recruited from the families of the professors. Only a few students had been admitted to it. A play entitled *The Wedding* was performed by this club in Cabell Hall; and, in the following year, the *Ghost of Jerry Bundler*

was brought out on the same boards. During 1908-09, the atmosphere of the precincts very frequently vibrated to the blare of a brass band, which had been organized by the young men; and this band was still in existence in 1911, when it boasted the possession of fifteen instruments. It had, during this year,—and doubtless previously too,—been carefully trained by an expert instructor.

Besides the occasions for diversion which these numerous clubs and associations created, there were others which were equally instructive or pleasurable. From time to time, dramatic companies, like Ben Greet's Woodland Players, gave performances in the open air on the Lawn; or a concert by Miss Betty Booker or by John Powell, or by these two artists together, was given in Cabell Hall. In the same apartment, in November, 1915, took place the concert of the Russian Choir of St. Nicholas Cathedral, New York, composed of thirty members, both men and boys. The Sunday afternoon organ recitals, which were attended by large audiences, were influential in cultivating the musical taste of the community at large. But more distinctly social, and more spectacular also, were the tableaux presented by the young ladies of the University or its vicinity. In one, they were represented as living guitars; and this performance was interspersed with musical numbers and torch and gypsy dances. Informal receptions, under the guise of soirées, were given at frequent intervals by the members of the various fraternities in their houses; and here also numerous dances came off.

But the gayest hours of the year for the lovers of this pastime were the dances which were held on the eve of the football game at Thanksgiving or the baseball, Easter week. Many alumni returned to the University on the

occasion of either game, and the simultaneous incursion of young ladies from neighboring finishing schools left no room to complain of a dearth of agreeable partners. In October, 1914, alone, five hundred visitors from Sweet Briar and Randolph-Macon Women's Colleges adorned the scene with their presence. Dances were given by the German Club and the P. K. Society on the evenings of the Thursday and Friday which preceded the autumn game. But it was during Easter week that the saltatory spirit flared up most brilliantly,—early in the Ninth Period, german were held, during this animated interval, by the Eli Banana society, the german club, the Tilka society, and the Beta Theta Pi fraternity; and after the performances of the Phi Delta Phi in Cabell Hall,—in which, as we have seen, local persons and institutions were satirized,—a hop took place in the gymnasium; and this was followed in one year at least by a bal masque, given by the managers of *Corks and Curls*. In 1912, Easter week was enlivened by a variety of pastimes. A burlesque “goating,” a ball game, an aeroplane flight, a dance by the german club, a second ball game, a german by the Eli Bananas, a third ball game, a german by the Tilkas, a track meet, a german by Beta Theta Pi, a fourth ball game and a play, constituted a succession of amusements. A tea at St. Anthony's Hall in honor of the visiting young ladies and their escorts was one of the additional features of the hour in 1913.

The social prestige of the Commencement, which, formerly, had been predominant, had, by this year, been to all intents, destroyed. It had been proposed five years before to omit from the final exercises all purely social events in which ladies had been participating, and to retain only the plain observances necessary to matters of routine; but that this consummation had not been fully

reached by 1911, was demonstrated by the german which the Delta Tau Delta gave in Fayerweather gymnasium during the closing celebration of that session. Practically the social incidents of the Commencement were now limited to an alumni luncheon, the class exercises around the Jefferson statue on the north front of the Rotunda, and a reception at the Colonnade Club.

An occasion of interest to the citizens of the academic village was the College Hour inaugurated by President Alderman not long after he took his seat. It was held once a month, and it was established for the following reasons: (1) the assembling of the University *personnel* on a definite day once every thirty days would strengthen the unity and solidarity of the institution; (2) it would enable the officers, professors, and students to know each other more thoroughly by the intimate influences which it would bring to bear through songs, organ recitals, and conversation; (3) it would cause teacher and pupil to meet on a somewhat more winning and sympathetic basis than was practicable in the atmosphere of the class-room; (4) it would create an opportunity to single out and discuss the large social and political problems of our times; (5) it would give the President an occasion to unfold his plans and disclose the prospects of the University; and finally, (6) it would increase the capacity of the students for cooperative effort.

XLIV. *Student Life — Physical Side*

Previous to the inauguration of the first President, the control of the athletic sports of the University rested nominally in the hands of the student body, but, in reality, of the General Athletic Association, on the supposition that every collegian, immediately upon his matriculation, was *ipso facto* a member of that organization.

Unfortunately for the soundness of this theory, the association was in reality mere putty in the manipulating fingers of a few dominating men. This subservience was universally admitted; but the students at large, impatient and suspicious though they were, were at a loss to find a means of throwing off this personal ascendancy over them. A committee on athletics was annually appointed by the chairman of the Faculty, but rarely held a meeting. There was no regulation which defined eligibility, and no sportsman-like rule which governed the games. Many of the young men taking part in them had matriculated only to participate in athletic contests. Some were professional athletes in disguise who had registered from every section of the country.

President Alderman, recognizing the disconcerting features of the situation, promptly decided, with the sympathetic cooperation of the Faculty, to take steps to remove all these evils, which were causing such just complaint. Indeed, the University of Virginia was one of the first institutions to apply a drastic remedy to conditions which were damaging the standing of American sport everywhere. A committee was appointed to make a searching investigation, and to recommend the measures to be enforced for carrying out the necessary reform. This committee consisted of Professor Echols, its chairman, Professor Minor, and Dr. Lambeth. The report which they submitted forms one of the most honorable landmarks in the history of the University of Virginia.

The committee earnestly counselled that the following resolutions should be at once passed: (1) that, in the opinion of the Faculty and students, the only proper basis of inter-collegiate athletics was that spirit of pure amateur sport which animates contests between gentle-

men the world over; and that the true criterion which differentiated amateur sports from professionalism was the spirit which plays the game for sake of the game itself; (2) that membership in a team should be held only by actual students,— a rule which would exclude all who carried about them the odor of professionalism,— and by young men whose class records demonstrated their keen interest in their scholastic work; (3) that it was the part of gentlemen engaged in any amusement, sport, or game, to remember, at all times, that they were gentlemen first, and only incidentally, players,— that they were to follow, not the bastard honor which calls for victory at whatever price of fraud or brutality, but the voice of true honor, which prefers an hundred defeats to victory purchased by chicanery or unfair dealing,— that the Faculty and students were determined to discountenance and brand with their disapproval any intentional violation of the rules of the game by members of the University teams or any improper advantage taken by them of their antagonists, and that it was entirely immaterial whether these were detected by umpire or referee; (4) that it was to be assumed that the opponents of these teams were gentlemen equally with themselves,— that every presumption of honorable dealing was to be accepted in their favor until the contrary was conclusively shown,— and that they were to be looked upon as guests, and as such to be always protected from rough and inequitable treatment; (5) that the spectators on the home grounds should show fairness and courtesy towards opposing players and officials of the game; and that the more considerate and generous the behavior of the University teams on such occasions, the more nearly would their members ap-

proach the ideal of the true gentleman and the true sportsman.

The committee further counselled that the following regulations should be put in practical force at once: (1) that before any student could become a member, or substitute member, of any athletic team of the University of Virginia, and take part in any inter-collegiate contest, he should be required to apply to the committee on athletics for a formal approval of his petition; and that this approval should be refused without further inquiry, if he was not an unconditioned matriculate of the institution; (2) that the applicant should appear before the committee and answer on his honor such questions as its members should consider proper to ask; and that his athletic experience should be carefully looked into and recorded; (3) that he should give a pledge in writing, supported by his word of honor, that he had never accepted, directly or indirectly, remuneration, compensatory gift, valuable consideration, or a promise thereof, for his athletic services; and that he was, in a strict sense of the term, an amateur player in collegiate athletic sports; (4) that no student who had been a member or substitute member of any athletic team at another college should be permitted to become a member of a similar athletic team at the University of Virginia, unless or until he had been residing in that institution for at least five months; (5) that no professor, instructor, or officer of the University of Virginia should be a member of any athletic team organized within its precincts; (6) that it should be the duty of the president of the General Athletic Association, the advisory board of that association, the manager of the team, the captain of the team, and the director of the gymnasium,

to furnish, on request, a statement to the effect that each member of an athletic team about to take part in a contest was open to no suspicion as to the propriety of his representing the University on that occasion; and without such clearance, he should not be permitted to participate in it; (7) that this privilege should be withheld from all students whose general standing was discreditable; (8) that, after September 15, 1907, no coach who was not an alumnus or officer of the institution, should be employed for the purpose of training or instructing any of its various teams; and finally, (9) that the Faculty committee on athletics should be authorized to establish a maximum period, after which a player in any branch of athletic sport should be ineligible to a place on the corresponding team of the University.

In January, 1906, these recommendations were adopted by the General Faculty, and the new code was declared to be in operation from that date. The athletic committee were warned to allow no inter-collegiate game to be played with any contestants who refused to conform to these rules. Their enforcement created a revolution in the history of the athletic teams. At once, a complete harmony sprang up in the relation of the Faculty's committee and the students' committee on athletics, which showed no sign of weakening until 1909-10, when a radical ticket was announced, upon the platform that the domination of the Faculty must be checked; that publicity of athletic affairs must be assured; and that a professional baseball coach must be employed. This opposing party succeeded in electing only two members of the advisory board, which would seem to indicate that the sympathy, on the whole, ranged on the side of the then prevailing policy of the existing committees on athletics.

The committees were empowered to recommend, from time to time, any new regulation which appeared to them to be needed. Among the new rules adopted were, (1) that no collegian should be admitted to any University team for an inter-collegiate contest unless he had passed satisfactorily a physical examination by the director of the gymnasium; and that if he was under twenty-one years of age, he must first obtain his parents' written consent to his participating; (2) that each professor was to report weekly on the class-work of any one or more of his students who were actual members, or substitute members, of any athletic team; and if they were declared to be neglectful of their books, they were to be compelled to sever their connection with the team; (3) that no games were to be played except on the grounds of some institution of learning; and finally, (4) that no student whatever was to be permitted to become a member of a team until there had been an interval of five months since his matriculation.

In 1916-17, the rule was adopted that no collegian in his first year should be admitted to any of the University teams. This was an absolutely certain guarantee of the exclusion of the professional player. All members of the teaching staff were also shut out as well as all students who had been members of a University team for a period of four years.

Two different incidents which took place after the introduction of the Presidency reveal the strictness with which the rules were enforced. First. The University of Virginia had, during some years, refused to enter into any athletic contest with Georgetown University; but finally resumed the old relations with that institution, on condition that its teams should rigidly observe the following regulations: a student of that University

was not to be eligible to play with the teams of the University of Virginia, if he had taken any part in athletics for compensation; or had been a member of a professional team; or had gone out with a summer team; or had participated in a game under an assumed name; or had not attended a course of lectures that occupied at least nine hours weekly; or had been actively associated with college sports during four years.

Second. There matriculated at the University of Virginia, during a certain session of the Ninth Period, a student who had been dropped from the roll of Columbia University for deficiencies in his classes; and there was no reason to infer, from his general record, that he would show more industrious habits in his new environment. When he offered himself as a candidate for a place on one of the teams, his application was turned down on this ground. It was said, at the time, that notice was thus given to the student body, as well as to all young men who were looking forward to admission, that the acquisition of knowledge and mental discipline were the fundamental purposes of the University of Virginia; and that sport was considered by this institution to be completely subordinate to these purposes. The following table reveals the respective grades of the students who were members of the athletic teams, and of the students who were not members:

	1909-10	1910-11	1911-12	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16
Football team	68.6	68.6	73.7	75.7	83.2	80.9	82.5
Baseball team . . .	74.6	74.6	74.4	78.	80.7	77.4	81.7
Basket-ball team	72.2	72.2	78.8	83.	79.8	79.	83.9
Track team	76.5	76.5	79.8	76.6	75.6	80.5	83.2
Relay team	77.4	77.4	77.3	80.7
Average for all ..	74.8	74.8	75.6	78.8	81.2	79.	82.8
Non-athletics	74.5	74.8	74.8	84.7	82.3	85.1	85.1

XLV. *Student Life — Physical Side, Continued*

In our description of athletics in the Eighth Period, 1895-1904, we mentioned the fact that, during the session of 1898-09, a system of alumni coaches was introduced, but that, at the end of two years, it was abandoned, and the former system of alien coaches restored. It was under the latter system that instructors, drilled on the grounds of Yale, Harvard, Princeton and Michigan Universities,—experts like Abbott, Chamberlaine, De Saulles, Poe, Sandford, and Cole,—were employed to perfect the skill and harden the power of endurance of the University of Virginia players. To Hammond Johnson was assigned, in 1906-07, the somewhat complicated duty of leadership in re-establishing the alumni coaching system, and adjusting it to a facile working footing. The attitude towards the change on the part of many was one of emphatic disapproval. They said that a large number of alumni who would make competent coaches would be prevented from undertaking the task by narrow means; that a spirit of fickleness would be encouraged; and that it would be impossible for such coaches to accumulate the experience of a Yale or Harvard expert. Besides, there was little in the history of the re-introduced system, as formerly associated with the University, that would serve as guiding posts for present or future management.

Following Johnson, there sprang up, in succession, a number of capable men,—M. T. Cooke, John H. Neff, Charles B. Crawford, Kemper Yancey, Speed Elliott, Rice Warren, and H. H. Varner,—who, in turn, undertook the principal control, and, with the assistance of many other alumni, made the system of domestic coaches so successful that criticism of it was gradually hushed,

and it continued in force until the athletic activities of the University were rudely broken up by the World War. But the services of the non-alumnus expert were not entirely shut out. The advisory committee of the General Athletic Board specifically requested the Faculty to amend the regulation prohibiting the use of such services; and this counsel that body accepted with the following safeguards,—which also had been suggested by the association: (1) the supervision of the foreign coach was to remain with the University alumni; (2) no alien was to train longer than two weeks during any one session; and under no circumstances was he to possess the last decisive word; and (3) he was only to be engaged in case of an emergency. With these precautionary rules, it was sanguinely expected that the amateur purity of University athletics would be protected and handed down indefinitely. As a matter of fact, it would appear that it was only in the sport of baseball that these foreigners were occasionally employed.

The manner in which the system of alumni coaches worked was thus described by Dr. Lambeth: "From each passing team," he said, "there is selected for field coach the most available man who possesses brains, initiative, and the faculty of cooperation. He opens the season's preliminary training, and he adjusts individuals and squads. As development advances, he invites certain specialists, who have become proficient by teaching here and elsewhere. On the arrival of the new coaches,—and the number is to be increased as the season progresses,—they are informed as to the plays in use, and the methods of executing them. At the night meeting of the coaches, every man can talk and vote on changes and innovations; and what is ruled by the majority is next day drilled into the team. The field

coach is transposed into a graduate coach. Here coaches are being made while the team is being instructed. Ten years will produce ten coaches of wisdom and power. The graduate system encourages and requires Virginia men to think for themselves. Instead of rubbing out and starting anew each year, we begin the new season where we ended the last."

The report of the secretary of the General Association of Colleges for 1910 mentions the fact that, at this time, nearly seventy of these institutions were in favor of the selection of coaches from the circle of their respective faculties, alumni, or undergraduates.

The old charter of the General Athletic Association having expired before the beginning of the session of 1911-12, a new one was drafted and adopted by the association and granted by the State Corporation Commission. Under its provisions, the advisory board consisted of two members drawn from the Faculty and five members drawn from the student body. It was the duty of the executive committee to superintend the association's affairs; to appoint the coaches, managers, and employees; to award the V to the most distinguished champions; to guard jealously the integrity of University athletics; and to administer the finances of the association.

By the session 1913-14, the influence of gross politics in the choice of officers of the General Athletic Association had disappeared. In all former elections, there had been two antagonistic parties, each supporting a different policy; but no step, however wise or necessary in itself, could be taken before the nomination of a candidate who represented that particular policy. "The politician in athletics," remarked Dr. Lambeth, who had been observing the normal species for many

years, "suggests affinity with insects. He first comes out of his pupa stage in March as a crab. He is a crab because you can't tell which way he is going, forward or backward or sideways. He backs and fills, until his final metamorphosis, which gives him his future characteristics, and which becomes pronounced in May." Before the adoption of the new charter, all the students participated in the elections, and the campaigns invariably took that violent form picturesquely described as "whirlwind." Subsequently, the "whirlwind" subsided to such an innocuous zephyr that, not infrequently, the names printed upon the ticket were not known to everybody until the day before the election took place. Each election was now in the hands of the executive committee and athletic boards.

About 1904-05, the University of Virginia withdrew from the Inter-collegiate Association. It seems that the institutions belonging to this association were now, with the exception of itself, without graduate students. "We were unwilling for them," said the spokesman of the University, "to legislate as to how they should play other colleges which did have graduate students." In 1915, the General Faculty were unanimously in favor of the University of Virginia participating in the athletic conference of Southern State Universities, the object of which was to stimulate the prosperity of inter-collegiate sports; to increase their disciplinary value; and to foster the highest sense of honor and fair play in all the inter-collegiate contests. The conference assembled once a year, and each member was represented by two delegates.

The financial condition of the General Athletic Association throughout the Ninth Period was, as a rule, satisfactory. The report of the treasurer in June, 1910,

showed that the receipts for the previous fiscal year had amounted to \$13,178.33; and after all expenses had been paid, there remained in the treasury a surplus of \$499.52. At the beginning of 1913, there was a credit in bank to the extent of \$1,440. The income, at this time, was derived from the regular fee of two dollars, the special contributions of students, and the gate-money handed in by the spectators. In 1911-12, the advisory board was compelled to borrow the funds which were needed to complete the work on the concrete stadium in Lambeth Field.

XLVI. *Student Life — Physical Side, Continued.*

In March, 1910, a national committee of seven,—organized to revise the game of football,—convened in New York City. Dr. Lambeth represented the University of Virginia in this body. The following were the radical innovations which they recommended: (1) that the game was to be played in four quarters in order to save the participants from exhaustion,—three rest periods were assured thereby, instead of one as formerly; (2) seven men were required to be in the line of scrimmage continuously when the ball was put in play; (3) the person who was carrying the ball was not to be touched or dragged, pushed or pulled by his fellows,—thus tightening up the mass and enfeebling the impact; (4) the player making a tackle must have both feet, or one foot, on the ground, thus cutting out the flying tackle,—a manoeuvre which was the cause of nine tenths of the injuries which were inflicted in games of football.

The Faculty had been inclined to discourage the continuation of this branch of sport at the University, in consequence of the death of Archer Christian, a student

of great promise who had been accidentally killed in a mêlée in one of the contests; but after the adoption of the new regulations, they gave up all further opposition. These rules were in force from the beginning of the session of 1910-11. Until the stadium was completed, which occurred about 1913, all the important football matches took place on other grounds. How chivalrously the University team bore itself in these foreign tours is demonstrated by the record of the game which was played in Boston with the Harvard team in 1915. "Clean exponents of football the Virginia eleven proved to be," said the *Boston Post*. "Virginia's spirit was a true exhibition of Southern hospitality. They helped a Harvard man off the ground whenever an opportunity offered, and not the least sign of unsportsmanlike play was evident. Virginia made a great impression. Time and again, these men helped foes from the ground, and showed the best spirit of any team here for years."

In the autumn of 1915, the University team defeated the team of Yale. When the successful players returned to Charlottesville, the whole student body met them on their arrival at the station, and drew them in a tallyho to the Corner amid Roman shouts of triumph. The painted score of that victory has not to this day been effaced from all the railway-bridges in the neighborhood of the precincts. It has been admiringly asserted that the football team of 1915 attained the highest reputation of any organization of that character which was ever formed by the students of the University,—it travelled nearly four thousand miles; played five games on foreign soil; and competing with the most thoroughly trained teams of the North and South, went down to defeat but once. In the course of three years, the University football teams had lost but three games, and

these were lost to the teams of Georgetown, Yale, and Harvard Universities. Georgetown University, it was asserted, had won her victory only by enlisting players who were not thought to be purely amateur, and, in consequence, the University of Virginia declined to accept a second challenge from that institution.

The football record of the University of Virginia, embracing the years from 1904 to 1916 inclusive, was as follows:

<i>Year</i>	<i>Won</i>	<i>Lost</i>
1904	78	54
1910	112	37
1911	262	30
1912	568	256
1913	265	28
1914	353	38
1915	219	25
1916	106	172

During the spring of 1905,—the first season to follow the establishment of the Presidency,—B. C. Nalle was the trainer of the baseball team. In the beginning, an absence of nine days was annually granted to its members in which to respond upon the field to the different challenges which they had received to play beyond the bounds of the University; and if an acceptable reason could be submitted, another day was added to this period. The rule that the team must play either on its own ground, or on ground belonging to some other institution of learning, was occasionally revoked; thus the team was invited in 1908, to play with college alumni residing in Orange, New Jersey, and the Faculty permitted it to accept. In April of the ensuing year, the University team was defeated by the team of Harvard; and in the following May, by the team of Yale. During the spring of 1910 and of 1911, there were one hundred and sixty-three

runs won and one hundred and forty-six lost. Of the twenty-four games played in 1912, the University of Virginia was successful in fourteen. Challenges were received during this season from Amherst College, and from the Universities of Princeton, Cornell, North Carolina, Georgetown, and Pennsylvania. The game with Yale ended in a tie.

In the course of 1911, a new policy was adopted. Prior to that year, the University team had been sent to all parts of the North at an almost intolerable expense to the General Athletic Association; but a resolution was now passed that the furthest point to which that team should be dispatched, should be the field at Princeton. The games in return were to be played either at the University of Virginia, or at some spot as close at hand as Richmond or Norfolk. It was in the latter city that the next game with Yale was expected to take place. About this time, a baseball league was organized by twenty-two of the fraternities at the University, with the public announcement that a handsome pennant would be awarded to every winner. No one who had played as a professional, or been a member of the University team, was to be permitted to participate in the games of this league.

During the spring of 1913, twenty games were played by the University team, and in thirteen, that team was victorious; in 1914, seventeen were played and ten were won. Among the teams defeated were those which represented the Universities of Princeton, Cornell, North Carolina, and Georgetown. In 1915, twenty games took place, and the University team was victorious in fourteen. It was during this season that the team was defeated by the teams of the Universities of Princeton, Yale, and Harvard, although successful in contests with the teams

of the colleges of Amherst and Williams, and of the Universities of Cornell, Michigan, and Brown. The season of 1916 was made brilliant by numerous triumphs,— of the twenty-five games played, sixteen were won by the University team; Yale University was routed; and in a game with the team of Harvard University, a tie resulted.

In 1905–06, the track organization comprised a captain, manager, an assistant, coach, trainer, and fifteen members. During the previous spring, the team had won at Philadelphia the one mile relay race in the intercollegiate contest, and at Baltimore an indoor relay race in a contest with the champions of Johns Hopkins University. In a second indoor race at Richmond, the team of the University of Virginia left the team of George Washington University far behind; but, subsequently, that team lost in a two mile race with the same opponents. In 1906, a large number of college teams assembled in the Horse Show Building at Richmond, and in the events of this meet the University representatives took the foremost part.

The season of 1907–08 was, perhaps, the most memorable in the history of the University team. During the winter meets at Washington and Baltimore, numerous points were won by the University runners, jumpers, and pole vaulters. The two most distinguished participants were Martin, the jumper and vaulter, and Rector, the sprinter. Rector had won the reputation of being the fastest dashman in America. One enthusiastic but discriminating admirer, describing the powers of this wonderful athlete, said picturesquely that "his work on the track, in 1907–08, stood out like the Singer Building in the mass of concrete and granite in the lower part of New York." In the autumn of 1906, he ran the hun-

dred yards in ten seconds, and in the spring of 1908, he brought this record down to nine and two-fifths seconds. In the course of this season, he defeated Cartmill, the inter-collegiate champion sprinter, who had left the English runners far in the rear during the previous summer. A few days later, he scored the world's record by making the one hundred yard dash in ten seconds flat on a board track; and in May of the same year, he reduced this record to nine and two-fifths seconds. This run was on Lambeth Field in a dual meet with the Johns Hopkins University, and the victory was won on a slow track and in the teeth of a high wind. But, in July, he was forced to yield the palm to H. Walker, of South Africa, in a run on the Olympic grounds.

During the session of 1908-09, meets took place in Washington, Richmond, and New York, and in all, the principal seats of learning were represented by their champions. In each of these meets, the University team won the one mile relay. Martin, a member of that team, established and retained the new world's record for the fifty yard hurdle. By the close of the season, the University of Virginia had come to rank in this province of athletics with the four greatest institutions in the Eastern States; and her team continued to hold this remarkable position during subsequent years. In one instance, Rector again scored ten seconds in a hundred yard dash, and five and two-fifths seconds in a fifty yard dash. In 1910, the team defeated the team of Johns Hopkins on three successive occasions; and, in 1911, it proved to be the victor in a field of three competitors at the Southern Inter-Collegiate meet; and during the same season, it also vanquished the teams of Georgetown and George Washington Universities. But it was not so successful in 1913. During the season of 1914, there were three

meets, in two of which the University team was triumphant; but, in 1915, it was beaten by the team of Princeton University, although it had defeated the team of Johns Hopkins University.

In 1916, the South Atlantic meet took place. The track organization of the University of Virginia had been a member of this association during three years, and the meets had been held on the Homewood Field at Baltimore and the Lambeth Field at the University itself. At the end of the fourth season, the University team was declared to be the champion team of the South Atlantic States. Its runners had won seventy-nine and one-sixth points more than the combined points scored by the Washington and Lee, Johns Hopkins, Georgetown, and Catholic Universities, Richmond College, and the Virginia Polytechnic Institute.

XLVII. *Student Life — Physical Side, Continued*

About 1910, a strenuous series of swimming races for the championship of the University took place; these were held in the pool of the Fayerweather Building; and two of them extended over respectively forty and one hundred and twenty yards. The regular gymnasium contests in April of that year were limited to tests of skill on the horizontal bars, and in tumbling, wrestling, and boxing. The editors of *College Topics* complained, in 1911, that, during the previous five or six sessions, all indoor athletics, with the exception of basketball, had declined in importance; and that it was the infatuation for basketball which had caused this deplorable condition. The players of that game, it seems, had been practicing at all hours; and this fact had interfered with the prosecution of other athletic exercises under roof. After a period of cessation lasting for several years,

a public exhibition was given, in 1912-13, by a team, which had been laboriously instructed by an expert trainer obtained from Princeton University. The first performance took place in the Fayerweather Building, and the second in the Jefferson Theatre, in Charlottesville. On December 6, of this year, there was an additional exhibition in Cabell Hall which consisted of somersaults, hand to hand balancing, high combination tumbling, and swinging drill. About two sessions later, a triangular meet was held by the gymnasium team with the teams of the Naval Academy and Vanderbilt University, and a dual meet with the team of Washington and Lee University.

Now, as in former years, every student was entitled to a physical examination by the director; and in accord with the conclusions of this diagnosis, he received advice as to what course in the gymnasium he should pursue for his bodily development. Besides the work of the individual, there was the work of the classes in light exercises,—such as marching and running, and the play of dumbbells and clubs. The steps followed in the instruction were gradual and progressive. The training in winter related chiefly to those branches of athletics which called for great strength and agility. A credit of three hours towards the academic degree was, in 1917, granted to all students who had elected physical culture, provided that they had matriculated previous to the session of 1917-18; but no credit was to be allowed to the same student for both military science and physical training. During the session of 1917-18, a course in physical culture and hygiene was established and a definite credit was attached to it in the acquisition of the baccalaureate degree.

The basketball team comprised a full complement of players. Its record between 1905-06 and 1916-17 con-

sisted of ninety games won and about twenty-two lost. These games seem to have been played chiefly with Southern teams,—indeed, only nine games were contested on ground situated north of Washington City. In 1916, the team was declared to be entitled to the award of the V. There was a spirited exhibition of cross-country running in the autumn of 1911 over a course extending from the University to Fry's Springs and the reverse, taking in one lap around Lambeth Field,—a total distance traversed of four miles. The opposing runner had been sent to represent Washington and Lee University. Twelve months before, there had been twenty-seven entries. The successful contestant in this trial was H. W. Brigham, who covered the ground in twenty-one minutes and twenty-two seconds. The boxing class in April, 1910, plumed themselves on their competence to such a degree that they actually visited Lynchburg to give an exhibition before one of the clubs of that city; and in addition to the boxing bouts, there were tumbling and wrestling matches on the same occasion. The University of Virginia was said to have been the first Southern institution of learning to organize a pugilistic association.

In the physical preparation of the divers teams and individual champions for the numerous branches of sport which we have previously described, no officer of the University had a more useful share than H. H. Lannigan. In the course of his early career, he had displayed remarkable endurance and speed as a runner; had taken a conspicuous part as a professional in a baseball league; had trained the great Fitzsimmons for the ring; and in putting the sixteen pound shot, had never been surpassed down to 1911. So high became his reputation for athletic skill that he was appointed the junior director of physical culture at Cornell. During many years pre-

vious to his translation to the University of Virginia, that institution had placed teams in the field only to see them lose in consequence of the superior physical preparation of their opponents. "In all the Northern colleges," said a critic of this shortcoming at the time, "the trainer has to do with the physical condition of the men, and the coach with their methods of playing. Our lack of training is shown when we meet teams like those of the Navy or Carlisle Indians. For the first half, Virginia plays them to a standstill, only to lose out in the second. We cannot finish strong."

In order to remove this weakness, something more than a general director of the gymnasium was required. In 1905, Lannigan was appointed associate director, and his services proving to be invaluable, his temporary nomination to that office was converted into a permanent tenure. "With the exception of Dr. Lambeth," said the editors of *College Topics*, in 1911, "Lannigan has done more for athletics at the University of Virginia than any man ever connected with the department. It was he who introduced basketball not before practiced here. He put track work on a different footing. He is the life and spirit in every branch of athletics. He developed Marbury and Staunton, Martin and Rector."

An essential accessory to Lambeth Field, where all the outdoor sports that we have mentioned so far were practiced, was the new stadium, which was constructed of solid concrete and extended around three sides of the open play-ground. In the rear of the seats, there was a covered colonnade to protect the spectators in case of rain. The plans of this building were drafted by R. E. Lee Taylor, of Norfolk. The first unit,—which accommodated twenty-five hundred people,—was completed in 1911, and the second and third in 1913. The whole

structure had a seating capacity of eight thousand persons, and cost thirty-five thousand dollars.

The lacrosse team was so self-complacent in 1905 that they challenged the veteran team of Harvard University to a game on Lambeth Field; but the result did not justify the confidence indicated in the invitation. Indeed, the score in favor of the Harvard visitors stood eight to zero. The club, in reality, had not enjoyed the advantage of an expert trainer; but, in 1906, with the financial assistance of the General Athletic Association, the members were able to employ one.

During the interval between 1904 and 1915, the tennis club had, from year to year, enrolled a full complement of players, who, each season, exhibited their skill in a domestic tournament. This tournament began on October 15, both in singles and doubles. A series of games with the representatives of other institutions were also arranged, in annual succession, for both the autumn and the spring. In October, 1909, the largest and most spirited event of this kind in the history of the University came off. On this occasion, there were thirty-four single entries and fifteen double. At that time, the courts were sixteen in number. During 1913-14, three games were played with foreign rivals, in two of which the champions of the University won. The membership of the club, as reorganized in 1913, seems to have been limited to about twenty-seven members. Its activities now reached a degree of energy never before observed in the history of tennis at the University of Virginia.

The golf club was placed on a new footing in September, 1905, but its membership continued to fluctuate, reaching as high a figure as seventy-three in 1914, and falling as low as thirty-two in 1917. Few years passed by without the episode of a golf tournament. In 1914,

one was celebrated, in which the clubs of Lynchburg, Roanoke, and Lexington competed with the representatives of the University of Virginia.

XLVIII. *Buildings*

In the course of previous chapters, we have referred incidentally to the new buildings which were erected for the use of the various departments, vocational or academic. The first of these was Minor Hall. This fine edifice, situated about midway between the south end of East Range and Dawson's Row, now forms the western side of the new quadrangle, of which Commons Hall forms the northern, the mechanical building the eastern, and the amphitheatre, the southern. It was so planned and so located as to constitute a part of a comprehensive scheme for the future structures of the University. Such a scheme had been drafted by Warren H. Manning, of Boston, which, without any departures from Jefferson's conception, provided sites for all the edifices that were certain to be needed in time. Minor Hall was so placed that its central line was on the prolongation of the axis of the engineering building, and its longitudinal axis was such as to allow of the extension of the engineering building, and at the same time, to leave space for the presence, in the interval, of a symmetrical court or amphitheatre. Such a structure, the gift of Paul Goodloe McIntire, was erected here in 1921, and was used for the first time during the centennial exercises. Plans for this amphitheatre had been drawn by Mr. Manning as early as 1911. It was then designed for open air concerts, debates, and the like.

Commons Hall faces the amphitheatre. This structure conforms to the details of Doric architecture, and, in its principal lines is strictly in harmony with the style

of the mechanical building. The chemical building, on the eastern side of the precincts,—the gift of John B. Cobb,—presents a front of imposing height and breadth. Of almost equal dignity is the educational building, situated on the western side of the grounds. This too was begun and finished during the Ninth Period; and so also, as already mentioned, were Madison Hall, the newest wing of the Hospital, many of the most spacious fraternity houses, the stadium, and the alterations in several existing buildings now used as laboratories.

From some points of view, the handsomest building erected during this period was the President's House. Its construction began in 1907, and it was ready for occupancy in the spring of 1909, after making necessary an expenditure of \$28,837.13. Carr's Hill, on which the residence was situated, had, in preparation for it, been laid off in terraces that converted the original scene from one possessing no charm to one presenting an aspect of great beauty. "The President's House," we are told by Dr. Lambeth, "resulted from an effort of Stanford White to give to the University an example of a lighter, more airy type of classic form than any left by Mr. Jefferson. Jefferson's types, from the beginning, were romanized. Weight, predominating, gave nobility and dignity. The President's House is more graceful than dignified, more beautiful than noble, yet the structure breathes both nobility and dignity."

It was determined, in 1912, to demolish Temperance Hall, a building lacking in architectural taste, and to erect a modern structure on its site, at a cost of twelve thousand dollars. This was to contain sufficient room for the post-office, and also for several stores. The old edifice,—which had been built in 1855-56, through the liberality of General Cocke and other advocates of total

abstinence,— had fallen into the possession of the Board of Visitors when the charter of the Sons of Temperance had been surrendered. This upshot was in harmony with the conditions attached to the original agreement with the University; but in order to keep as near to the initial object of the building as possible, the Board, so soon as they acquired it, put it in the possession of the Faculty committee on religious exercises, with instructions to use all the profits from the tenants for the promotion of religious activity within the precincts. Subsequently, they rescinded this arrangement, and appropriated to that committee only twelve hundred dollars of the annual rentals. It was this committee which recommended the destruction of the old hall. After the completion of the new building, the rentals seemed to have been paid to the bursar; who, in turn, transferred them to the treasurer appointed by the committee on religious exercises. They were afterwards used by that committee in such manner as was thought to be most beneficial to the interests of the students.

Involvement in the plan for a new building at the Corner was the plan for two new gateways at the entrance to the University precincts nearby. The money which was expended in this addition was presented by Mrs. Charles H. Senff, on condition that the gateways should be raised as a memorial of her husband, and also as a permanent monument to the Honor System, which had so long been cherished by Faculty and students. Mrs. Senff's gift,— which amounted to \$20,000,— was partly to be laid out in the improvement of the grounds. An important addition was made to the rear of the Colonnade Club in the course of this period in order to afford restful quarters for visiting alumni. A spacious reception-room was attached, numerous bed-rooms constructed, and an open air

place for lounging created at the back of the building. By the session of 1912-13, the ground in front of Dawson's Row from House A to House F had been terraced and a concrete walk laid down parallel with all the houses. Pillars had also been added to the face of each building, thus partially metamorphosing the Row,— notable, during so many years, for its plainness,—into pleasing examples of Jeffersonian architecture on a small domestic scale.

A novel contract was signed by the University and Dr. Richard H. Whitehead, in 1906,— he being, at that time, the dean of the medical department,— by the provisions of which he secured the right to build a residence for his family on land belonging to the institution. The principal terms of this contract were as follows: the lease was to continue for a period of fifty years, and the rent to be paid was not to exceed \$250.00, annually during the life time of Dr. Whitehead or his widow, so long as either personally occupied the house; if one or the other should give up the premises under a sub-lease, then the rent was to be readjusted at the end of every five years, starting from the original date of the lease; but should the University authorities prefer to do so, they were to be at liberty to take back from the vacating lessee or his widow the remainder of the term of fifty years. At the end of this period, the University would possess the right to purchase the residence; and if it should omit or decline to do so, the persons then representing the Whitehead estate could either remove the building, or demand the extension of the old lease for another half-century. The taxes and cost of repairs were to fall upon the original lessee or his sub-lessee.

Perhaps, the most beautiful of all the improvements to the University grounds made in the course of the Ninth

Period was the creation of English and Italian gardens in the long intervening space between East Lawn and East Range. There were four in all; and the work on them seems to have been begun during the session of 1905-06 and finished two years afterwards. Previously, the site of these gardens had been a rough slope overgrown with gaunt trees and tangled brambles. Terraces were now formed with level areas, the whole laid off in geometrical figures, set off by small shrubbery and perennial plants and interspersed with gravel walks. The interval between West Lawn and West Range had, previous to 1908-09, been converted, in large part, into a dumping ground for unsightly refuse. Here and there stood a tottering, windowless back-building, a dilapidated shed, or a pile of bricks, black and mossy from long exposure. This deserted space was leveled and graded, and, with its fine trees, became an attractive section of the University precincts. "The greatest change noticed in the grounds to my observation," said an interested alumnus, who visited the University in 1913, "was the artistic treatment of the area between the Lawns and the Ranges. What used to be the greatest snarl has been changed into really beautiful gardens; and to walk from either one of the Lawns to the Ranges, through one of the inside alley streets, is to walk along a path of harmony."

These gardens have been erroneously called "Chinese" gardens, perhaps from some vague impression created by the Chinese balustrades which ornamented the houses on either Lawn. Their belated introduction within the boundaries of the eastern slope was entirely consonant with the wishes of Jefferson, for it was from this quarter of the campus that the precincts of the University were first entered, and his anxiety to please the

eye of the visitor, so soon as admission to the grounds was gained, was revealed in the elaborate mouldings that adorned the entablatures at the back of those buildings, which were the earliest to be seen and examined.

Previous to 1904-05, the atmosphere of the University structures,—with the exception of the library, the dormitories, the pavilions on East Lawn, and the group of buildings designed by Stanford White,—were still warmed by grates or stoves in winter; but, before the close of 1917, there was in operation under every roof a system of steam or hot water heating, supplied by central or isolated plants. The last to obtain this advantage were the dormitories situated on Dawson's Row and Monroe Hill and the residences occupied by Professors Thornton and Mallet standing on the crest of that elevation or near its foot. An important extension of the electric equipment,—which had been in use during many years,—was finished by 1907.

Among the special gifts of statuary for the embellishment of the grounds to be noted of the Ninth Period was the bronze figure of Jefferson, presented by its creator, the distinguished sculptor, Sir Moses Ezekiel. Ezekiel was a patriotic native of Virginia; had taken part in the gallant charge of the cadets at the Battle of New Market; and, during his long residence in Rome, had produced numerous works of remarkable merit. The money that was required for the safe transportation of the Jefferson and its proper setting after its arrival at the University, was obtained through the generosity of Thomas Nelson Page, Joseph Bryan, George C. Thomas, and others, some of whom were not alumni of the institution. Mr. Bryan made his contribution a memorial to a Jewish friend, a brilliant fellow-student at the University in 1862, who after-

wards perished on the battlefield as a devoted Confederate soldier. The figure rises from a pedestal supporting a large bell, around the tip of which is engraved the inscription still extant upon the one which sounded the Declaration of Independence at Philadelphia in 1776. Placed at regular intervals against the background of this bell were four winged female figures symbolical of liberty, justice, religious freedom, and human freedom. The speaking group of blind Homer, accompanied by his youthful guide, which now stands in front of the Academic Building, was also the fruit of another fine conception of Sir Moses Ezekiel. It was not designed for the University of Virginia when ordered by John W. Simpson, of New York, but, at the sculptor's request, it was generously offered to that institution. The replica of Karl Bitter's statue of Jefferson,—the original of which was included among the art treasures of the Louisiana Purchase Exhibition,—was presented by Charles R. Crane, of Chicago, while the replica of Houdon's statue of Washington, which now faces Bitter's Jefferson at the foot of the Lawn, was the gift of John T. Lupton, of Chattanooga.

Among the other objects of interest received during this Period was the great organ which Andrew Carnegie donated, and which, in the autumn of 1906, was erected in Cabell Hall. Two patriotic gifts were the flag poles now rising on the Northern plaza of the Rotunda, one of which was presented by Thomas F. Ryan, and the other by Paul Goodloe McIntire. The flag of Virginia waves from the western pole, and the flag of the United States from the eastern, while, in the long shadow of these emblems, as they float in the wind, stands an old world sundial, which was the gift

of the class of 1910. A bronze lamp, to be placed above the Confederate memorial tablets on the south wall of the Rotunda, was presented by the medical class of 1906.

XLIX. *Finances — Endowment Fund*

The most vital incident in the financial history of the University of Virginia, during the Ninth Period, was the acquisition of a large endowment fund. In the winter of 1903-04, the Washington chapter of the General Alumni Association held a meeting, and as the national celebration of the centennial of the Louisiana Purchase was about to take place, it was decided that the hour was propitious for the collection of an imposing sum for the expansion of Jefferson's seat of learning. The first to suggest this memorable undertaking was Robert Lee Preston, who was seconded by Cazenove G. Lee; and in the beginning, its most indefatigable promoter was Thomas Nelson Page, whose wife made the first contribution to the fund. A plan was drawn up for obtaining a million dollars by gift from the alumni and friends of the University of Virginia as well as from the admirers of Jefferson throughout the United States. A committee was appointed, which comprised, not only Mr. Preston and Mr. Page, who served as chairman, but also H. A. Herbert, Samuel Spencer, and Randolph H. McKim. The first step taken by this committee was to choose an advisory committee composed of men of national distinction. Both President Roosevelt and former President Cleveland, when approached, expressed a keen interest in the practical success of the project. At the meeting of the General Alumni Association, held in the following June (1904), the announcement of that project, and what had

already been accomplished in its prosecution by the energetic and devoted chapter in Washington, was received with unanimous commendation. This chapter was already represented by a board of five trustees.

At the meeting of the General Association in June, 1905, Mr. Preston brought up the question of choosing a board of trustees from the body of the association itself, which was not to exceed seven in number, and which was also to be empowered to hold the endowment fund. The board of trustees, which, previous to 1905, had represented the association at large was composed of Joseph Bryan, Charles Steele, and William A. Clark, so that there were at this time two boards,—the board of five appointed by the Washington chapter, and the board of three appointed by the association as a whole.

The original resolution establishing a board of three trustees was now rescinded, and a new board, composed of Joseph Bryan, Samuel Spencer, Thomas Nelson Page, Thomas F. Ryan, A. P. Humphrey, William A. Clark, and the President of the University ex-officio, was nominated. This board, which displaced all the previous boards, was authorized to hold the Jefferson Memorial Endowment Fund and whatever sums should be presented to the General Alumni Association.

At the annual meeting of the general body held in June, 1906, a committee composed of President Alderman, C. J. Faulkner, DeCoursey W. Thom, Eppa Hunton, Jr., Homes Conrad, and Armistead C. Gordon, was appointed to draft an amendment to the charter. This committee, reporting at the next annual meeting (June, 1907), recommended that this document should be so framed as to allow of the more formal creation of an alumni board of trustees, seven in number, who should hold, manage, and expend the endowment fund in harmony with the

provisions of a deed of trust which should clearly define their rights, powers, duties, privileges, and responsibilities. This suggestion was adopted by the association. The deed of trust, dated February 7, was drawn and recorded in the clerk's office of Albemarle county, in 1908, contemporaneously with the grant by the State Corporation Commission of the amendment to the charter. In accord with the authority given by this amendment, the following seven trustees were now elected: Joseph Bryan, Thomas Nelson Page, Thomas F. Ryan, A. P. Humphrey, C. J. Faulkner, W. W. Fuller and the President of the University *ex officio*. This board convened for the first time in Washington, in December, 1908, and organized by the nomination of President Alderman as its chairman. Before this, however, occurred, Mr. Bryan had died. In concert with Eppa Hunton, Jr., he had, under direction of the then existing board of trustees, been receiving and investing the endowment fund. Mr. Hunton was, at this time, a member of the Board of Visitors. William H. White succeeded Mr. Bryan as trustee, on the declination of the position by Charles Steele, and Mr. Hunton Thomas F. Ryan, who was also unable to serve. Mr. Hunton was appointed the treasurer of the fund.

The members of the new board of trustees were to remain in office during good behavior, but were to be removable by the vote of three-fourths of the association at large. All vacancies arising in their ranks were to be filled by the board itself. The endowment fund was to be held intact, and only the income was to be used. Every person who was in possession of any sum controlled by the association for the benefit of the University was directed to deliver it to the treasurer of the board of trustees. It seems that, ultimately, the subscriptions

to the endowment fund in the hands of the Board of Visitors were also diverted to the same officer. The board of trustees was required to assemble at the University before each annual meeting of the Visitors, and, on that occasion, they were called upon to determine the expenditures for the approaching scholastic year, and also to draft a report to the association which should show the condition of the principal of the endowment fund, the amount of the income derived from it for the past fiscal term, and the purposes for which that income had been disbursed. By 1909, the Fund had come to be designated the General Alumni Association Fund of the University of Virginia.

The first suggestion of the endowment fund, as we have seen, was broached in the winter of 1903-04. President Alderman occupied his seat for the first time in the autumn of 1904, and one of the numerous tasks of magnitude which confronted him at the very start was to take up and carry on the struggle of collecting the precise sum which the General Alumni Association had announced must be acquired for the University's benefit. In the midst of the routine duties which he had to perform from day to day, and of the multitudinous interests which he had to watch and direct without intermission, he threw himself, with all the energy at his command, into the campaign for the completion of this noble undertaking. His devotion to the task was the most powerful factor in that splendid quest, and to him more than to any other single individual was its ultimate success attributable. By June 13, 1905, sixty days after his formal inauguration in April, he was able to report that \$228,000 had been contributed to the amount in view. Of this sum, one hundred thousand had been presented by Mr. Rockefeller as a memorial to

Dr. Curry. Mr. Carnegie, when approached by President Alderman, promised to give \$500,000 to the fund so soon as the other \$500,000 had been assured. In November, 1908, there still remained to be obtained of the latter amount, \$250,000. This was the most difficult feat of all to accomplish, and yet between November and February, 1908-09, the last dollar of it had been secured through the untiring activity of the President of the University. The following were the contributors who came forward in this short interval, and made the complete fund a certainty,—Colonel Oliver W. Payne, who gave \$50,000; Archibald Cary, \$20,000; the Christian Woman's Board of Missions of Indianapolis, \$30,000; Thomas F. Ryan, \$25,000; C. H. Senff, \$25,000; General Education Board, \$50,000; and Charles Steele and his personal friends, \$50,000.

Looking back upon the campaign, President Alderman said, in a letter, written in March, 1909, when the stress of the work had passed and victory was won, and yet the consciousness of the obstacles overcome had not yet grown dim: "Mr. Carnegie had developed a feeling that the alumni alone ought to be the contributors to the fund. This had to be dislodged from his mind, and in addition \$150,000 had to be raised in a few days if any certainty was to be assured as to the permanent success of the great enterprise. I was able to accomplish it because it had to be done."

In the end, the total amount collected to meet the requirements of Mr. Carnegie's contingent gift of five hundred thousand dollars was \$693,653, which was almost two hundred thousand dollars in excess of that conditional sum. On February 19, 1909, President Alderman announced in person to the assembled members of the Faculty that the campaign for the endow-

ment fund had been successfully concluded; and that one million dollars had been added to the financial resources of the University. The resolution which that body at once adopted expressed precisely the emotions which were felt by every alumnus of the institution: "Deeply moved by the unselfish and unsparing sacrifice of President Alderman,—who, at the risk of health, and at the cost of many an ache of nerve and depression of heart, has steadfastly pursued the good of our University,—we assure him of our unstinted appreciation of his labors, our thrilling joy in his triumph, and our unreserved loyalty to him as he gives himself up to directing the new power, that it may eventuate in the greatest good to all the interests of the University, over which he so worthily presides."

We have already mentioned incidentally the names of some of the generously disposed persons who contributed to the endowment fund. Among the donations which were accepted by Mr. Carnegie as a portion of the five hundred thousand dollars to be raised to fulfil the conditions of his gift, were \$22,000 from Mrs. Thomas Nelson Page, which constituted the Barbour-Page Foundation, \$27,500 from the Christian Woman's Board of Missions, \$20,000 from Archibald Cary, and \$19,683.20 from the trustees of the Athletic Club. The following sums then in the possession of the Board of Visitors, were also accepted: the gift of John D. Rockefeller, \$100,000; of G. F. Peabody, \$10,000; of C. R. Crane, \$5,000; of Charles J. Peabody, \$1,000; and of James C. Carter, \$10,000. Through the influence of Charles Steele, Robert Bacon contributed \$10,000; and so did H. McK. Twombly. Other benefactors were Joseph Bryan, who gave \$10,276; Samuel Spencer, \$5,136; Dr. William C. Rives, \$5,000; W. K. Jessup, \$1,000; Theo-

dore Price, \$1,000; Elihu Root, \$1,000; A. P. Humphrey, \$2,210; DeCourcey W. Thom, \$1,000; and Henry L. Higginson, \$5,000.

The Carnegie donation was set apart for the endowment of the following chairs: Edgar Allan Poe School of English; James Wilson School of Political Economy and Political Science; James Madison School of Law; James Monroe School of International Law; Walter Reed School of Pathology; and the Carnegie School of Engineering. The report of the treasurer of the fund for the fiscal year ending July 1, 1911, disclosed the possession of a principal of \$959,658.50, without counting the \$50,000 which had been contributed by the Christian Woman's Board of Missions, but which remained under its own control. The total amount of the fund was, in reality, at this time, \$1,009,658.50, from which an average income of \$47,500 was annually derived. In 1914-15, the securities in the hands of the alumni board of trustees were appraised at \$928,980.80, while other moneys reserved for various uses amounted, during this fiscal year, to \$100,100.00 additional. In June, 1918, the entire fund held by the trustees had a market value of \$916,938.65; and of this amount, \$788,978.01 was reserved for general purposes, and \$127,969.64 for purposes designated in the original gifts. In the latter category were included the Barbour-Page Foundation, the Curry Memorial Fund, and the Isaac Cary and Rives donations.

L. *Finances — General Resources*

The history of the endowment fund having been related, it can now be asked: what were the independent gifts which the University had, during the same interval, received, either by bequest or donation? Previous to

1910-11, the most important addition of this nature to its resources was derived from the estate of Edward W. James, which reached the total sum of \$264,656.00 ultimately. But only one half of the income of this estate, during the first fifteen years, was, by the terms of the will, to be appropriated to the use of the institution; the remaining half was to go, during that period, to the Confederate Soldiers' Home in Richmond. The whole of the Austin estate did not fall in until after 1908, owing to the testamentary imposition of certain life interests on the income. It amounted to about \$430,000 in the end. The various funds in the actual possession of the University in 1910-11 were distributed chiefly as follows:

General Endowment Fund	831,827
Curry Memorial School of Education Fund	97,792
Barbour-Page Literary Fund	22,256.67
Corcoran Endowment Fund	100,000
Kent Chair of English Literary Fund	60,000
Vanderbilt Observatory Fund	87,000
General Library Endowment Fund	23,000
John W. Scott Memorial Fund	5,000
John Y. Mason Fellowship Fund	7,000
Birely Scholarship Fund	4,500
Brown Scholarship Fund	1,500
Cabell Scholarship Fund	1,200
Sampson Scholarship Fund	2,000
W. J. Bryan Fund	250
J. B. Cary Fund	50,000
Rives Fellowship Fund	5,000
Austin Estate	405,347.58
James Estate	198,467.03
Sinking Fund	12,865
Loan Fund	1,000
Fuller Fund	10,000
Harvard Loan Fund	5,000
Herndon Fund	14,246.92
Skinner Fund	41,988.92
Miller Fund	100,000

During the session of 1912-13, the additions to the resources of the University in the form of donations and

bequests were, in the aggregate, \$35,081.70; during the session of 1913-14, \$115,163.12, and during that of 1914-15, \$286,790.65. The latter amount consisted of the portion of Dr. Green's estate which had so far been received; namely, \$126,193.17; the sum of \$16,929, accredited to the Austin estate; a loan fund of \$10,000, given by Colonel Oliver W. Payne; a donation of \$50,000 from John B. Cobb; and another donation of \$50,000, from an anonymous friend of the University. The two gifts of Mrs. Senff, which were equal to \$20,000, were also included. In 1915, Robert L. Parrish bequeathed \$50,000 to the institution, and the next year an anonymous gift of \$250,000 was announced, and also a bequest of \$7,625, under the will of Miss Frances Wilson. Mr. Steele also presented \$10,000 additional. In 1918, the donations amounted to \$18,135.67.

What was the total value of the property held by the University in 1912-13, the middle session of the Ninth Period? It was as follows: in the form of bonds, \$1,279,774; in the form of mortgages, \$133,645.33; and in the form of stocks, \$1,000. Its productive real estate was appraised at \$286,518.56. This consisted of the dormitories, the cottages in Dawson's Row, the President's House, the heating plant, observatory, pavilions, fraternity houses, and the colonnade club. The unproductive real estate,—which comprised the grounds, campus, and timber lands,—was appraised at \$600,000; the unproductive buildings,—such as Cabell Hall, hospital, laboratories, gymnasium, dining-halls, law building, administration building, literary society halls, chapel, and dispensary,—at \$937,694.58; and the general equipment at \$178,077.00. The total valuation of the property in the University's possession, at this time, was estimated at \$3,416,709.47.

Let us pause here and compare these figures with the figures for 1906 in order to show the University's growth in the short interval of half a dozen years. The total estate of the University, in the latter fiscal year, was appraised at \$2,328,000. The division was as follows: the general endowment fund, \$778,000, and the buildings, equipment, and lands, \$1,550.00. With the exception of the original edifices, valued at \$400,000, the land valued at \$100,000 and the new hospital valued at \$70,000, this great property had been acquired from private persons in the form of gifts equivalent in value to the sum of \$980,000. Next, let us compare the figures of 1912-13 with those of 1916-17, the session coming just before the end of the Ninth Period. "Omitting the original Jefferson combination," remarked the President of the University in his report for that year, "of the twenty-five buildings on our grounds, eighteen were erected by private gifts, and seven by State appropriations. Four greatly needed buildings, and certain physical improvements, costing, in the aggregate, \$425,000, have been erected by private gift; and besides, a million and a half dollars have been added to the endowment fund during the past twelve years. The State has only put into its University, in the way of permanent improvements, during the century of its existence, \$675,000, and now (January 1918) is able to show for the investment tangible property values of \$1,697,000, and an endowment of \$2,471,000, a total of \$4,168,000,—over six times the amount the State has spent."

What was the indebtedness of the University at the time that the preceding valuations of its property were made? Apart from the mortgage safeguarding the loan negotiated for the complete physical restoration of the institution after the fire of 1895, there was, in 1904, an

outstanding liability of \$69,500; this matured on October 15, 1905; and the finance committee was instructed to sell the securities of the sinking fund, and with the proceeds pay the whole of it off. On March 10, 1906, the General Assembly authorized the Board of Visitors to issue bonds for \$200,000 to be secured by a deed of trust. These were to be used to retire the bonds issued in 1895-96. About six years later, the total debt of the University, protected by mortgage, amounted to \$202,174.38; and this charge had not been reduced by 1916-17.

What was the amount of the annual income of the University during the Ninth Period, and what was the amount of the annual expenditures? In 1904-05, the first session of the Period, the income was estimated at \$163,650; the annual expenditures at \$176,300. From what source did this income arise and what were the purposes for which it was disbursed? The following were the sources of the income: State appropriation, \$50,000; tuition and other fees, \$71,000; interest on endowment fund, \$32,390; and rents, etc., \$10,260. The expenditures were as follows: \$103,320 for the salaries of the professors, instructors, and officers; \$12,000 for interest on the debt and for an addition to the sinking fund; \$31,480 for improvements, repairs, and labor; \$29,500 for advertisements of various sorts, printing, fellowships, scholarships, and small incidental charges. By the fiscal year of 1909-10, the total income had increased to \$241,180, and the total expenses to \$239,911.00

The following table offers a bird's eye view of the resources of the University from the fiscal year of 1913 to the end of the Ninth Period, on January 1, 1919.

Income, 1913-1918

<i>Year</i>			<i>From Students</i>	<i>From Endowments</i>	<i>From State</i>
June 30,	1913	84,360.04	81,165.39	98,200.00
"	1914	94,512.37	74,596.27	114,949.99
"	1915	93,378.16	81,265.29	118,550.01
"	1916	96,134.71	82,995.43	83,333.34
"	1917	100,715.41	82,386.24	90,000.00
"	1918	67,132.33	81,000.74	96,685.62

<i>Year</i>			<i>From Bequests</i>	<i>From Rents etc.</i>	<i>Total</i>
June 30,	1913	19,126.09	11,443.37	294,294.37
"	1914	21,201.75	24,276.01	329,536.39
"	1915	27,257.02	23,865.25	344,315.79
"	1916	26,393.15	26,798.67	315,155.30
"	1917	33,741.79	25,833.95	332,677.09
"	1918	33,319.80	27,073.15	305,197.64

The following table shows the expenditures for the fiscal years 1913, 1915, and 1918:

Expenses 1913-1918

<i>Year</i>	<i>Gen. Admin.</i>	<i>Business Admin.</i>	<i>College and Graduate Departments</i>	<i>Law Department</i>
1913	26,306.08	4,762.50	86,317.75	18,630.65
1915	27,518.13	4,684.16	103,702.59	20,745.00
1918	18,659.00	31,288.57	108,510.05	18,407.51

<i>Year</i>	<i>Medical Department</i>	<i>Engineering Department</i>	<i>Library</i>	<i>Summer school</i>
1913	54,046.05	14,217.41	6,376.88	1,500.00
1915	75,322.50	15,443.10	9,067.55	1,500.00
1918	41,051.57	16,316.10	6,824.54	1,500.00

<i>Year</i>	<i>Bldg. funds</i>	<i>Gymnasium</i>	<i>Sinking Fund</i>	<i>Miscellaneous</i>
1913	29,098.23	1,250.68	11,498.00	7,002.18
1915	46,310.75	1,515.00	11,605.46	12,385.00
1918	43,282.58	1,595.56	12,151.69 ¹

LI. *The Alumni — General Association*

The objects which the General Alumni Association kept in view throughout the Ninth Period continued, as formerly, to be: (1) to advance all the material and moral interests of the University; (2) to encourage unity and kindness among the alumni; and (3) to strengthen the spirit of the local chapters, and to bring them together in the bonds of a closer organization.

In 1904–05, the threshold of the Period, there were twenty-six chapters in Virginia, all of which, with the exception of a half dozen, were situated in the towns and cities of the Commonwealth. At this time, there were twenty-eight chapters in existence in the other States. Indeed, every Southern State besides Virginia, including Maryland and Missouri, could claim the possession of one or several,—by 1909, there were eight chapters in Texas alone, and four in Tennessee. Beyond the borders of the South, flourishing chapters had been founded in New York, Philadelphia, Denver, Los Angeles, and Porto Rico. There were twenty-eight in Virginia during 1912–13, and thirty-six outside,—which took in the new chapters established in Wilmington, Delaware, and Kansas City; but two years later, the number of the Virginia chapters shrank to twenty-

¹ The bursars during the Ninth Period were in succession Isaac Moran and E. I. Carruthers.

six, although, beyond the borders of the State, the number had increased to forty-three. During 1916-17, there were twenty-seven in Virginia, and forty-eight outside,—a total of seventy-six. Twenty-five hundred of the alumni were, in 1909, enrolled in these different organizations; and in the course of the following eight years, this enlistment was very much enlarged.

Everyone of the chapters which, in 1904-05, contained ten active members was entitled to appoint the incumbent of a scholarship at the University. During this session, there were forty holders of such scholarships, of whom twenty-six had been named by the Virginia chapters, and fourteen by the foreign. No chapter could fill one position of this kind unless it had remitted to the treasurer of the General Alumni Association the fee of five dollars due for the preceding year; and it could only fill two if it had paid twenty-five dollars in fees. In 1905-06, the General Assembly reduced the general charges of the Virginia student to ten dollars, and this enactment rendered almost valueless the scholarships belonging to the Virginia chapters. Five years later, the records disclose that only fifteen of the existing sixty chapters to be found throughout the United States had made appointments to these alumni scholarships; and this fact was the more remarkable as no cost in filling the position fell upon the individual chapter. At the annual meeting this year, it was proposed that every chapter which so wished should have the right to appoint a scholar at its own expense; but few were willing to assume the charges thus to be incurred.

Although the amount of the annual dues payable to the General Alumni Association by each chapter, did not, during the early years of the Ninth Period, exceed fifty cents for each of its members, yet the collection of even

this small sum was tedious and precarious. The Association needed a moderate income to defray the expenses of printing, postage, clerical work, and other miscellaneous details; and it was imperative too that some remuneration should be allowed the secretary for his time and labor. It was estimated, in 1909, that the sum of \$1,750 would be required each year; and of this amount, twelve hundred dollars was to be reserved for the salary of that officer. A committee, which reported on this subject to the General Association, recommended that each member of every chapter should be permitted to pay five dollars on condition of obtaining a permanent exemption from further assessment except by his chapter for its own support. The adoption of this suggestion created a system of life memberships; but it was left to the option of each member whether he should apply for such membership; and before the end of the first year, one hundred had taken advantage of the rule.

By 1915, the dues of each member of the association had been fixed at two dollars annually; and this amount was increased to two dollars and a half in the course of the ensuing session. Payment of these dues entitled the member to the following privileges: he could cast a vote at the alumni meeting; he could participate in the appointment of alumni scholars; he could call on the alumni office for information or aid in any university matter in which he was interested; he could claim a year's subscription to the *Alumni News*; and finally, he was to be admitted to the enjoyment of all the advantages of the Colonnade Club. In 1916, the central office of the General Alumni Association derived its income from the following sources: (1) an appropriation by the Board of Visitors of fifteen hundred dollars each year for its support; (2) advertisements in the *Alumni News*;



(3) annual dues of the members; and (4) sums paid by classes, alumni chapters, and the University itself, for special services independent of the routine work.

Between 1904 and 1916, the office of President of the General Alumni Association was filled by men of distinction,—the number included among others, Samuel Spencer, Thomas Nelson Page, R. Walton Moore, O. W. Underwood, and John Sharp Williams. There were but two treasurers elected in this interval,—Professor Raleigh C. Minor, and William A. Perkins. There were numerous vice-presidents,—among them, George W. Lockwood, R. C. Blackford, Dr. H. H. Young and Swager Shirley.

The most important office was the secretaryship; and this was occupied in succession by Professor James M. Page and Lewis D. Crenshaw. In June, 1914, the former, who had performed the duties of the position during ten years, withdrew from it, and was succeeded by Mr. Crenshaw, who, on the first day of the preceding January, had been elected recorder for the six months to end with the last day of the ensuing June. The specific purpose of his appointment at that time, and for that interval, was to assure, through his energy and devotion, the success of a reunion of alumni which was projected for the finals of that year. The necessity of employing a permanent and salaried secretary was clearly perceived as early as 1904–05, for it was only by offering substantial inducements that a competent man could be influenced to give his entire attention to the duties of the office. We have already alluded to the recommendation of an alumni committee, in 1909, that a definite sum should be annually reserved for the requital of such a secretary; but it was not until Mr. Crenshaw was chosen recorder that a really practical step was taken to bestow

upon the incumbent of the place a living wage. On his appointment for the period of six months, he was promised a monthly salary of one hundred and fifty dollars, with seventy-five dollars for the same length of time for routine expenses.

When the term of six months expired in June, Mr. Crenshaw's services as recorder had proved to be so valuable that the General Alumni Association determined to collect four thousand dollars to secure his retention, and at their annual meeting in June, \$2,050 of this sum was contributed by thirty-three of the members then present. The Board of Visitors appropriated \$1,500 for the same purpose; and the alumni in general were asked to subscribe the remainder. The arrangement was intended to continue until June, 1915, when it was anticipated that a plan would be drafted for the permanent support of the office, which, by the action of the executive committee of the association on July 11, had come to combine the different duties of secretary and treasurer. It was these duties which Mr. Crenshaw was to undertake. The demand for the creation of the office in a durable form was in harmony with the experience of other institutions, the majority of which were, at this time, employing a permanent alumni secretary. There was now a national organization of such secretaries; and their annual conferences had begun as early as 1913.

The functions of the new secretary may be summarized as follows: (1) he edited the *Alumni News*; (2) he assisted the officers of the local chapters in a general way; gave early notice of chapter meetings and banquets; organized new chapters and reorganized old; took part in the choice of incumbents for the alumni scholarships, and secured their necessary credentials; (3) he formed

the alumni into class units, and each outgoing class into a distinct body; published the class directories; aided in compiling the class bibliographies; arranged for the entertainment of alumni at the finals; (4) he indexed all the alumni by card alphabetically and geographically, and kept the roll of them up to date; helped the fraternities in their similar work; assisted in the public propaganda of the University; and cooperated with the General Alumni Association in attracting a large attendance for special events. It was also his duty to draft and mail to the alumni the annual letter which informed them of the trend of affairs at the institution during the previous session; and as he occupied the position of treasurer as well as that of secretary, it was also his duty to collect the annual fees. An extraordinary burden of additional work, too minute to be particularized, fell upon his back.

At the annual meeting of the Association in June, 1915, it was decided to confine all alumni work to the office of the secretary and treasurer, and to keep up that office by means of modest dues to be paid by the entire body of membership. The Board of Visitors also appropriated \$1,500 per annum for three years, beginning July 1, 1915, for the continuation of its routine functions.

There had been an early recognition of the fact that an endowment fund was needed to maintain the secretaryship in unbroken usefulness, and in 1916-17, a campaign began to collect the sum of \$200,000 for its support. The purposes which the endowment was expected to ensure were: (1) to reorganize the chapters, so as to make them alert and influential for the benefit of the University; (2) to reorganize the classes; (3) to check up annually the addresses of the alumni; (4) to prepare directories for all the alumni classes; (5) to inaugurate

an annual campaign to induce so many of the alumni to return to their several class reunions that the attendance at finals would reach at least one thousand persons each year; (6) to obtain a photograph and biography of each alumnus; (7) to mail to every alumnus the annual reports of the secretary, the President, and the bursar, and all other college literature of the like practical interest; (8) to take the necessary steps to persuade the best of the high school graduates to matriculate in the University; (9) to establish a bureau of appointments, through which recent graduates or older alumni might find employment; (10) to make of the University night, during the Christmas holidays, a brilliant social occasion to which thousands of alumni would come, and to furnish each of these gatherings with photographic stereopticon studies or moving pictures of the University; (11) to establish a travelling fund to enable the secretary to visit annually a large number of alumni chapters, and to be present, as the college representative, at every important chapter meeting; (12) to develop among the alumni a spirit of pecuniary liberality towards their alma mater; (13) to appoint for each year a date on which the alumni could return for the purpose of watching the institution at work; and finally, (14) to keep the practical needs of the University always in the public eye, in order to ensure a more generous legislative support.

LII. *The Alumni — Reunions*

A circular letter of the secretary of the association in 1906,—which was addressed to the surviving alumni of the years 1886, 1891, 1896 and 1901,—deplored the small attendance that had, by this time, become habitual at the annual commencement. What was his explanation? The lack of a systematic class organiza-

tion. The alumnus who now visited the University at the finals had no reason to anticipate the sight there of any of his old college comrades. The familiar scenes, he knew, would be found unaltered, but the loneliness would destroy the pleasure of seeing them again. How was this condition to be changed? By inviting the alumni to come back in cycles. In this way, each would have an opportunity, once every five years, to meet at the University the friends of his own class year. First, an invitation should be dispatched to the alumni of the sessions ending in one or six. These should be asked to return in June, 1906. The alumni of the sessions ending in two or seven should be asked to return in June, 1907; and of the sessions ending in three or eight, in 1908; and so on for an indefinite series of years.

The reasons in explanation of the absence of class organization at the University were still as vigorous in their influence as ever. In the first place, there was an extraordinary number of fraternities and other societies which tended to concentrate the students' interest upon separate organizations, and not upon a central one common to all; and in the second place, there being no class system, as in curriculum colleges, the young men did not enter and leave the precincts as members of a distinct class which had hung together during four years.

The first indication of class consciousness occurred in 1892, when each department, acting separately, elected a president; but his term of office did not last beyond a single session, and his only important function was to serve as a judge in trials under the Honor System. The next indication of class consciousness was the permanent organization of the medical class in 1899, and of the law class in 1902. But a more meaning step forward was taken in 1907, when, for the first time, the

graduates of all the departments united themselves in one permanent body, and elected officers to represent it. This body was known as the class of 1907; and in imitation of its example, the graduates of each succeeding year established a class for their own session.

Previous to the reunion of the general class of 1908 in 1913, there had been a reunion in 1910 of the medical classes of 1899 and 1905; but the attendance was small; and the attendance of the general class of 1907, at their first reunion, was still more insignificant. It was said that less than ten of its members were present. The emotion which this fact excited was one of discouragement. "In the place of the advantages of an organized class system, like that of Princeton," it was asserted afterwards, "with its fine loyalty and spirit of camaraderie, we have had to substitute our cumbrous device of confusing in one grand class all the graduates of all the departments of a given year, as well as those men who are leaving college although not graduating." Nevertheless, even before the class of 1908 had made their splendid demonstration in 1913, the possibilities of loyalty to friendship and alma mater which lurked in this so called "cumbrous device" had begun to reveal themselves in beautiful ways. Thus the class of 1907 presented the University with a bronze bust of Washington; the class of 1910 gave a sundial and two Pompeian benches; the class of 1911, a bust of Sidney Lanier; the class of 1912, a sum of money to found a loan fund; the class of 1913, a class book; and the class of 1916, a marble bench. In 1910, class exercises took place. The honor men, clothed in cap and gown, marched, in double file, to the north front of the Rotunda, and there an original poem was read, and gifts to the University delivered, a class song sung, and the class

toast offered and responded to. After passing the loving cup and trolling the *Good Old Song*, the graduates dispersed.

Before describing the manner in which the reunion of the class of 1908 was celebrated, let us dwell for a moment upon the initial steps which were taken to ensure that unprecedented success. During the commencement week of 1908, a constitution was drafted by the class of that year and officers elected. The President of the class was Thomas V. Williamson and the Vice-president, Lewis D. Crenshaw. Each member pledged himself to be present during the finals of 1913, and agreed to pay an annual fee of one dollar and twenty-five cents in the interval, chiefly for the purpose of providing board and lodging at the University on the expected occasion. The plan of issuing a bulletin for each year in this interval was also adopted, and by 1911, two issues had been printed. The old cry of the class was again practiced with all the wild ardor of the impulsive years passed under the arcades:

"Keg and a crate, keg and a crate,
We are the men of nineteen eight."

Mr. Crenshaw was appointed the publicity manager of the reunion campaign, a position for which his energetic and sanguine temper and previous study of class organization excellently fitted him. As a loyal graduate of the University, he was also anxious to demonstrate the possibilities of the reunion as a means of quickening the devotion of the alumni as a body. So soon as he accepted the new post, he opened an office at the University. His first practical step was to communicate with the one hundred and eighty members of the class, whose names had not as yet been registered,—indeed,

at this time, there were only one hundred and forty-six enrolled. In the end, nearly every member attended the reunion, so persuasive were his tireless exhortations, and so powerful were his more substantial inducements. Some came from communities as far away as Texas, Arkansas, California, and Panama. The shrewd principle which animated his appeals was, as he himself said, "that weary business and professional men do not come back to hear speeches; that they want to laugh over old times and meet on the old camping ground the friends of earlier days; that they want music and the joy of their young days; that they want to be young again and drop their cares for a brief period."

His second step was to organize the class of 1913 with a view to the assistance which it could furnish in entertaining the class of 1908; and his third, to form the Class Officers' Association, composed of the officers of the classes of 1908, 1909, 1910, 1911, 1912 and 1913. This body too was to be turned to full account in promoting the success of the reunion. In recognition of all these tireless activities, the Colonnade Club donated a trophy cup, to be awarded annually to that class which, in its own membership, should show the largest percentage of alumni present at the finals. A special edition of *College Topics*, descriptive of the approaching reunion, was published, and seductive literature, in all forms, crying up the occasion, was dumped by the wheelbarrow into the post-office and weighed down the current mails.

The largest section of the returning alumni agreed to rendezvous in Richmond, and there they were made receptive for the expected festivities at the University by a brilliant banquet at the Commonwealth Club. With a special car to themselves next day, the men, without

any shock to their modesty, were able to don on the train the sailor suits of the class. At the station in Charlottesville, the chairman of the class and a town committee received them with imposing formalities. A procession was quickly formed, and with the class banner waving gallantly in the van, and a brass band playing lively airs in the rear, the nautical visitors took up the march towards the University. As they tramped along, they broke into the old familiar songs and repeated the ear-splitting college yell, while the excited and gaping crowds on the sidewalks greeted them with shouts of admiration and approval. Arriving at the north front of the Rotunda, they mounted the steps, rank after rank, and deploying by way of the colonnade terrace, halted on the south front of the building. Rallying around their banner and uncovering their heads, they sang the *Good Old Song*, to the tune of *Auld Lang Syne*, and the grand notes rolled through the arcades and echoed from pavilion to pavilion, and dormitory to dormitory:

“That good old song of Wah-hoo-wah,
 We’ll sing it o’er and o’er;
 It cheers our hearts and warms our blood
 To hear them shout and roar.
 We come from old Virginia,
 Where all is bright and gay;
 Let’s all join hands and give a yell
 For the dear old Virginia.
 Wah hoo wah hoo
 Wah hoo wah,
 Uni-i-Virginia
 Hoo-rah-ray,
 Hoo-rah-ray,
 Ray ray,
 U. V. A.
 What though the tide of years may roll,

And drift us far apart,
For alma mater still there'll be
A place in every heart.
In college days, we sang her praise
And so when far away,
In memory, we still shall be
At the dear old U. V. A."

Closing the song with a mighty shout for the class of 1908, the procession again fell in, like seasoned soldiers, and took up the line of march down the Lawn, and thence straight to the right to the foot of Monroe Hill. Between Minor Hall and the middle house of Dawson's Row, a big tent had been pitched, with its hospitable flaps thrown wide apart; and under its protecting white folds, the men broke ranks, having, as they entered, blown a final blast of trumpets. Addresses by representatives of various classes followed. Next morning (June 16), the Lawn and Ranges were swarming with a very motley host of invaders,—there were swarthy buccaneers, in the garb of the cut-throats who used to plunder the Spanish Main, and jolly tars, in white jackets and trousers, who could not be distinguished from the sailors who manned the American battleships; here and there a picturesque matador or picador would be elbowed by what seemed to be a group of curious bumpkins, fresh from the hay-fields, while many militant suffragettes were to be seen flaunting red printed sheets inscribed with the legend: "Votes for Vimmen, A-men."

At three o'clock in the afternoon, a great procession, with outriders on cavorting horses, was formed to attend the game between the "frenzied farmers" of 1913, and the "sacrilegious seamen" of 1908, which was to be played on Lambeth Field. This event had already been widely announced in a flamboyant poster. The route

taken by the marching men started from the Big Tent and zigzagged through the grounds. First came the band playing the liveliest ragtime airs, and behind them walked the members of the several classes in separate bodies,—the class of 1913, dressed as Mexicans; the class of 1907, as Zouaves; the class of 1909, as Alpine climbers; and the class of 1913, as farmers. The sailor class of 1908 laboriously pulled along a battleship float bristling with dummy guns. After deploying around the field, the several detachments halted in its centre, and then the mock ceremony of presenting works of art to the University began. The first delivered was fashioned in the most fantastic cubist style, and according to the grave announcement, had been executed by the great Sir Ezekiel Moses himself; and the same paternity was attributed to the heroic statue of Jefferson, which was next delivered, with equal formality. This was made up of boxes, crates, and kegs, and held a horn in one hand and a wooden sword in the other.

At the second stoppage of the procession, a bull fight was found to be going on. The furious animal at first successfully resisted a host of matadors and picadors, but was finally struck down; and on that instant, there emerged from its hide, a distinguished physician of Norfolk, who had belonged to the class of 1903. Next ensued an engagement between the dreadnought, manned by the crew of 1908, and the pirate ship *Blow and Fire*, manned by the crew of 1912. While this determined battle was being fought out, the farmers of 1913 were grouping their squealing pigs and cackling poultry, and building their hayricks, along the front line of the stadium. A mule, with a bunch of lighted firecrackers tied to his tail, and bestridden by two clowns who belonged to the class of 1900, suddenly burst into the

field, amid a storm of hilarious shouts from the spectators. The occasion, so full of loud noise, gay color, and rough merriment, closed with a game of baseball, in which the antagonists were the classmen of 1908 and 1913.

During the entire interval of the reunion, the Big Tent was a scene of almost continuous fun and uproar, and if there was ever a pause, it was filled up with the music of the band or the piano. A tribunal was set up and an alumnus tried for undertaking, without license or patent, to manufacture hair-brushes from the "thread-like bristles" of his moustache. There was also a club organized for the purpose of seeing the sun rise above the Southwest Mountains; but eighteen of the members were soon dropped because they had gone to bed by four o'clock in the morning. The principal rule of this club called for a dervish dance as the dawn began to break. Among the cups presented in the course of the exercises which were held on the Rotunda steps was one given to the alumnus who had travelled the longest distance to be present at the reunion. He had traversed the length of 3,898 miles. Another had journeyed 3,640, and a third, 3,600. A fourth received a bonus because his jaunt had extended through eight dry States. The trophy cup which was given by the Colonnade Club was awarded to the class of 1908.

The reunion ended with a mighty barbecue in the grove of Sunnyside,—the home of William R. Duke. "Can you forget," said Dr. William Dold, in describing the scene, "the red-hot Brunswick stew, followed by the early draughts of nut-brown ale? Do you recall with what interest we stood by the pots and watched the roasting of the lambs and shoats, smelling the savory odors that filled the woods? Above all, do you

remember how each and all of us enjoyed that feast? Riding home with an Oxford man, he made the remark that it was one of the most unique and interesting affairs that he had ever attended." Mr. Duke, the genial and hospitable host of the hour, received a loving cup from the class of 1908 as a souvenir of their gratitude for his kindness.

An event of a romantic and pathetic character took place during the exercises of the commencement of 1912,—at the suggestion of President Alderman, an invitation to attend a reunion at the University at that time was sent to every alumnus still surviving, who had entered the service of the Confederacy. One committee was appointed to look up their several addresses and their military records; another, to despatch the invitations to them and to provide for their entertainment. One hundred and seventeen were discovered; and it was found that, among them, were one brigadier-general, one colonel, two lieutenant-colonels, three majors, twenty-five captains, and eighteen lieutenants, six adjutants, fourteen sergeants, two surgeons, seven assistant surgeons, three corporals, and thirty-five privates. Only about eighty were able to attend the formal exercises, which had been set for the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth of June.

On the first day so appointed, these veterans assembled, and organized themselves into an association; and this was followed by a dinner, which the University gave in their honor. Judge George L. Christian responded in their name on that occasion. "Ever since this little band of Confederates," he said, "landed at the institution, they have met with unstinted attention. Nothing could have been more marked than the evidence of veneration, respect, kindness, and courtesy, of the students

and the young alumni towards us." "Never," said another old soldier, who was also present, "have I seen such fervor and enthusiasm since the historic days when the student company left the University for Harper's Ferry in April of 1861." Among those to whom medals were awarded was a veteran of eighty years who had lost his sight. As he was led to the rostrum by his grandson, a child, in order to receive his medal, the sympathy of the great audience expressed itself in prolonged applause. "Never have I looked upon a more appealing and dramatic scene," comments the old soldier already quoted. And the same electric emotion was aroused by the toastmaster at the final banquet, Armistead C. Gordon, when he read to the same appreciative audience the stirring lines of his battle-poem, *The Garden of Death*.

The success of the reunion in 1913 led to increased energy in organizing the classes which had not yet been enrolled. By 1914, the Secretary was able to report that, in the number brought together, were the classes of 1864, 1874, 1879, 1884, 1889, 1894, 1903, and 1904, and the classes of 1906 to 1914 inclusive. The classes of 1915 and 1916 were afterwards organized in turn. Accurate rosters of all the other classes ending in six or one had been compiled by him with the view to their reunion at the finals of 1916. The permanent formation of each one of these classes was accomplished during this reunion, and plans were drawn up for the next like event in the future. To promote a desire to return to the reunion of 1914, Crenshaw began, on March 12, the printing of the *Big Tent*, in which he pressed upon the members of the classes expected, with all the persuasive resources at his command, a campaign of *Back to Virginia*. This periodical appeared up to the finals of that year once every

ten days. It was sponsored by the Class Officers' Association. In 1915, the *Orange and Blue Paper* was issued as a substitute for the *Big Tent*. This too was discontinued in 1916. The class of 1917 was fully organized by December, 1916; but its elaborate programme was completely upset by the entrance of the United States into the World War, in the course of the following April.

LIII. *The Alumni — Colonnade Club*

Before the inauguration of President Alderman the Faculty was a small body, and in consequence, their social intercourse was then more intimate and more constant than would have been possible had the membership been large and less homogeneous. As the number of professors was increased to fill the new or the expanded chairs, the desirability of some social centre common to them all became more apparent; and under the influence of this fact, a faculty club was organized in 1907 and pavilion VII rented for its use from the Board of Visitors, at an annual charge of one hundred and fifty dollars. The roll of resident members, at first, did not exceed seventy names. The only purpose of the association at this time was acknowledged to be to foster cordial and friendly relations, and to encourage an active co-operation, among the teachers and the members of the administrative staff of the University.

But there was one man who had the practical shrewdness and the breadth of vision to see that the club could be made to subserve a far more useful end than the contracted one then in view. This was Bruce Moore, the secretary, who was not an alumnus. It had been seriously proposed to abolish the remnant of those features which had once made the finals so attractive

to the returning sons of the institution. What inducement could be offered to revive the interest of the alumni in this occasion, and thus stimulate their loyalty to the University itself? Mr. Moore, with just foresight, thought that the club could be turned into a means of accomplishing this beneficent object. He now went indefatigably to work, with the hearty encouragement and assistance of the club, to increase its non-resident membership in order to secure the money necessary to defray the expense of offering new attractions to influence the alumni to revisit the precincts. In short, he strove to do for the alumni of the University of Virginia what the Graduates' Club at Yale and the Calumet Club at Harvard had done for the sons of those institutions,—the creation of a centre within the bounds where all the alumni could meet on common ground.

It was said, in 1909–10, that the success of the club, under Mr. Moore's general management, was chiefly instrumental in preserving some of the flavor of the old social character of the Finals. The alumni began to return in numbers that had not been noted since the first years following the close of the War of Secession. At the commencement of 1908–09, at least one hundred registered their names on the books of the club, and at the commencement of 1909–10, two hundred and fifty. Its membership, had, by this time, increased to nearly one thousand. In 1910, it issued a volume which contained the names of the living alumni, and it also lent its aid in obtaining all the information about their careers that could be collected. It assisted too in the formation of local alumni chapters, and in keeping them in contact with the University. It sent, at its own expense, a representative of the General Alumni Association to the Conference held at the Ohio State University in Febru-

ary, 1913, which assembled to found a national society of alumni secretaries. It also offered, as already mentioned, a reunion cup to nourish the spirit of the organized classes,—which it was so important to strengthen and extend,—and also to influence classes which had not yet been organized to come together at once to compete for the trophy.

Another means which the club adopted to accomplish the same object was the establishment of the *Alumni News* in March, 1913. This periodical was designed to supply the alumni with information about all the departments of the institution, and the varied interests of the student body, and also to create a medium of conveying to the Faculty the opinions of the alumni about university problems. It was issued once a fortnight, and sent, without charge, to every non-resident member of the club. Its editor was Russell Bradford, who was to take up the work of the club in succession to Mr. Moore, after an interval in which Paul B. Barringer, Jr., had filled the office.

But the principal advantage offered by the club to the non-resident members was that it would assure them, during their visits to the University, all the conveniences of a home. It had been clearly recognized by Mr. Moore that the problem of inducing the alumni to return periodically was, in no small degree, the problem of housing them properly. The club afforded a practical solution of this difficulty. But it was not long before it was perceived that the increased enrolment would ultimately make indispensable an addition to the building then standing. Previous to 1905, the sum of nearly three thousand dollars had been collected by the General Alumni Association for the purpose of erecting an alumni hall; and the General Athletic Association had

also, by that time, secured about eighteen thousand dollars in contributions for the construction of an athletic building. In the course of that year, the two organizations agreed to pool their respective funds, and if possible, to augment the amount by sixty thousand dollars in order to assure one large building which would give ample room for the members of both bodies combined. The original alumni fund was, prior to 1905, held in trust by Colonel Carter, the proctor, and the original athletic fund, by Dr. Lambeth. When the two were united, Dr. Lambeth and Judge R. T. W. Duke, Jr., were chosen the joint trustees.

At the annual meeting of the General Alumni Association, in June, 1910, it was suggested that the two organizations should abandon the plan of erecting a single edifice for their common use. The members of the General Alumni Association were now, as a body, anxious to build a separate structure for their own occupation, and its executive committee, aware of this fact, at their session in January, 1911, appointed a committee to canvass for subscriptions. This committee reported in June the acquisition of \$2,088, with promises of \$288.00 more. As there was already four thousand dollars in hand, the total sum that had now become available was about six thousand dollars. The executive committee, when they met in January, as previously mentioned, had also urged the separation of the double trust fund; and had further recommended that the projected alumni hall should be attached to the Colonnade Club, in the form of an annex. The General Athletic Association having accepted the proposal to divide the funds, the General Alumni Association decided to use their own share in creating the annex as advised by their executive committee. A special committee was appointed to consider

the style of the prospective building; and it was also instructed to confer on that subject with the President of the University and the President of the Colonnade Club.

At the meeting of the Association in June, 1912, acceptable plans for the structure were submitted by the firm of Ferguson, Carlow, and Taylor, architects of Norfolk. At this time, there was a fund of \$6,442.00 in bank. In the spring of 1913, the new building was pushed rapidly forward towards completion; it contained a billiard room, a pool room, a lounging room, and eight chambers. There was space for a garden in the rear. The moneys used in constructing the annex consisted of \$3,132 obtained from the two original trustees; \$4,000 appropriated by the club; and \$2,554.33 contributed by the alumni and held by a third trustee,— a total of \$9,686.03. The Board of Visitors advanced the sum of \$1,500, and the Club an additional \$500.00. The entire cost, including the outlay for heat and light fixtures, was in the neighborhood of twelve thousand dollars.

LIV. *The Alumni — Distinguished Sons*

Among the members of the National Congress in 1906, there were nineteen who had been educated at Yale University; eighteen, at the University of Michigan; and eleven, at Harvard University. On the other hand, twenty-one were accredited to the University of Virginia. In the Sixty-First Congress (1910–11), Yale University could point to fifteen of her graduates; Harvard University to sixteen; the University of Virginia again to twenty-one. In the Senate, during this session, the latter institution could count seven of her alumni. It was represented in the National Government, during the administration of 1913–21, by the following officials: the President, Woodrow Wilson; the Attorney-

General, Thomas W. Gregory; member of the Supreme Court, J. C. McReynolds; Counsellor of the State Department, John Bassett Moore; Comptroller of the Currency, John Skelton Williams; ambassadors to foreign courts, C. P. Bryan, Thomas Nelson Page, and Joseph E. Willard; minister, Hampson Gary; surgeon general of the National Public Health Service, Rupert Blue. Nine members of the Senate, during this administration, were able to claim her as their alma mater. Besides Virginia, States as wide apart in situation as Kentucky and Texas, Delaware and Mississippi, Illinois, Alabama, and Arkansas, were represented in that body by her graduates. At least eighteen of her alumni, coming from communities as remote from each other as New York and Texas, Indiana and North Carolina, occupied seats in the Lower House of Congress.

During the administration of President Cleveland, the Democratic tariff bill was formulated by William L. Wilson, an alumnus; and when a similar bill had to be taken up during the administration of President Wilson, it was Oscar W. Underwood, another alumnus, who drafted it. At this time, Henry D. Flood, also an alumnus, was Chairman of the House Committee on Foreign Affairs, and William A. Jones, of the Committee on the Philippines; Senator Martin was the leader of the Democratic Party in the Senate; and Thomas P. Clarke was the President *pro tempore* of that body.

The importance of the graduates of the University of Virginia in the judiciary of the Commonwealth, in the Ninth Period, is indicated by the appointments of the General Assembly, during the session of 1913-14,—Joseph L. Kelly was then elected a member of the Court of Appeals; and eight other alumni were raised to seats on the circuit bench. At one time, in the course of this




Period, twenty-eight alumni were members of the National Medical Corps and Medical Reserve Corps, a number only exceeded in the case of the graduates of the University of Pennsylvania, George Washington University, and Jefferson Medical College, enrolled in those professional bodies. E. O. Lovett, an alumnus, was elected to the Presidency of the great scientific institution established by the philanthropist, Rice, at Houston, Texas. In 1913, there were at least twenty-one of the alumni employed in the East as missionaries, religious and medical, or as teachers and editors,—indeed, it was correctly said that the University of Virginia had dispatched a larger number of its graduates to the foreign fields than any State institution in the entire country; and there were few denominational colleges even which could rightly claim more representatives in that great province. It was estimated that, by 1916, about five hundred of the alumni had been ordained for the ministry; and seventeen of these, during the Ninth Period alone, were bishops of their several sects. The three most influential denominational journals of the South were edited by graduates of the University,—the *Southern Churchman*, by Meade F. Clark; the *Religious Herald*, by A. E. Dickenson; and the *Christian Advocate*, by J. J. Lafferty.

The Ninth Period was marked by a more lively interest in the fame of Edgar Allan Poe as the greatest literary alumnus of the University. It was during this Period that a bronze tablet, the gift of Miss Bangs, of the National Cathedral School in Washington, was erected over the door of his room, No. 13, West Range. Besides the name of the master, and the date of his birth, it bore the felicitous inscription, *Domus parva magni poetæ*.

The interval between the sixteenth and the twenty-third of January, 1909, was given over to a commemoration of the poet's career. The occasion began on Saturday, the 16th, in Jefferson Hall, which was situated only a few steps from the dormitory which he had once occupied. The essays then read related to the events of his sojourn at the University, while a sermon, bearing upon his general life and character, was delivered in the chapel on the following morning. The Raven Society had charge of the celebration which was held on Monday evening in Cabell Hall. At that meeting, an original poem was read by Professor J. Southhall Wilson, of the College of William and Mary, followed by an interpretation of Poe's verse by Professor Willoughby Read. Illuminating personal recollections of the man and the artist were told by Dr. Herbert M. Nash of Norfolk, who had heard him deliver a deeply interesting lecture in that city not long before his death. Another vivid feature was the lantern studies of the University buildings and terraces as they appeared at the time of his matriculation. Papers, having for their subjects different aspects of his masterpieces, were read on the following days by Alcée Fortier, Georg Edward and several other professors of distinction.

Among the subsequent exercises was the presentation of sixty-seven medals to individuals and institutions, who or which had been conspicuously instrumental in heightening the popular appreciation of the poet's genius. During the progress of the proceedings from day to day, his former dormitory was thrown open for inspection. An effort had been previously made to furnish it with articles that would restore it to the condition which distinguished it during his occupancy.



A settee from the Allan home in Richmond had been obtained, besides other pieces of furniture of that date, while a real raven, stuffed, looked down from a coign of the room.

The Ninth Period witnessed more literary productiveness among the alumni than had characterized any period since the close of the War of Secession. The range of the works extended over broad and varied ground. In the ecclesiastical field, Professor Crawford H. Toy's *Introduction to the History of Religion* was a contribution of the ripest scholarship to a subject of which he was admitted to be a master. Professor Thomas L. Watson's *Mineral Resources of Virginia* and Professor Jordan's *Histology* were thorough scientific treatises. Professor Raleigh C. Minor's *Republic of Nations* was a thoughtful presentation and analysis of all the arguments that could be advanced in favor of a League of Nations. In the province of belles-lettres, there were two works of merit,—Professor C. Alphonso Smith's *What Literature has Done for Me*, a volume of unusual suggestiveness, and Rabbi Calisch's *The Jew in English Literature*, which incorporated the fruits of the author's wide reading. The *Letters of Edgar Allan Poe to Sarah Helen Whitman*, edited by Professor James A. Harrison, threw a new romantic light on the private life of the poet. Professor Trent, as the head of the board of editors which arranged for the publication of the monumental *Cambridge History of American Literature*, and in part composed it, increased the great reputation for literary skill and critical acumen which he had long before acquired.

The principal novels written by the alumni during the Ninth Period were *Robin Aroon* and *Ommirandy*, by Armistead C. Gordon, and *John Marvel, Assistant*, by

Thomas Nelson Page. *Robin Aroon* pictured, with poetical delicacy, the highly colored scenes and characters of Colonial Virginia, while *Ommirandy* presented the humorous and pathetic aspects of the later plantation life, with perfect knowledge and tender sympathy. *John Marvel* was a forceful description of the different sides of the modern social life of the North and West. The principal collection of poetry was also the achievement of Mr. Gordon. The small volume *For Truth and Freedom*, which he issued, contained, among other verse, the lofty stanzas read at the inauguration of the Academic Building.¹

Two volumes of reminiscences were published during the Ninth Period; namely Dr. Richard McIlwaine's *Memories of Threescore Years and Ten*, and Dr. David M. R. Culbreth's *Recollections of Student Life and Professors*, a volume which has preserved, with remarkable vividness, the characteristics and personalities of the University of Virginia in the seventies. One of the most admirable county histories ever written by a native of the State was the production of an alumnus of this Period,—the *History of Orange County*, by W. W. Scott, a book which has touched upon every side of the annals of that community with the learning of an antiquarian and the spirit of a patriot. A volume of wider scope, *The Old Dominion, Her Making and Her Manners*, by Thomas Nelson Page, described, with sympathy and insight, the influences which have moulded the social life of the Commonwealth at large. *Stuart's Cavalry in the Gettysburg Campaign*, by Colonel John S. Mosby, the *Life of General Turner Ashby*, by Clarence Thomas, the *Soul of Lee*, by Randolph H. McKim, and *Robert E. Lee, Southerner*, by Thomas Nelson Page,

¹ The inscription on the face of this building "Ye shall know the truth, and the truth shall make you free" was first suggested by Mr. Gordon.

were valuable contributions to Confederate military history; and of equal importance as a contribution to Confederate political history was the *Life of Jefferson Davis*, by Armistead C. Gordon. The biography of J. L. M. Curry, jointly written by President Alderman and Mr. Gordon, and the *Life of O. Henry*, by Professor C. Alphonso Smith, sympathetically depicted the careers of two Southerners who were conspicuously active in different provinces, and who, by their genius, raised the reputation of their native region. But, perhaps, the most remarkable of all the biographical works of this period was the *Benjamin Franklin, Self-Revealed*, by William Cabell Bruce. Its wealth of information, its humorous and philosophical insight into the character of its subject, its breadth of view, its thoroughly digested matter, its perfectly balanced arrangement, and the pungency, affluence, and vigor of its style, made so strong an impression that its author was awarded by Columbia University the Pulitzer prize for the most finished and patriotic biography issued during the year of its publication.

LV. *The World-War — The First University Measures*

Before the United States declared war, the University of Virginia was participating, so far as foreigners were permitted to do, in many of the numerous provinces of the belligerency in Europe. All the principal American seats of learning organized an ambulance service for the Red Cross, and the University of Virginia was one of the first to purchase and equip a field ambulance for the same purpose. A thousand dollars were subscribed towards that end by persons associated with the University community. Among the alumni who found their way to the fighting line at this early stage of military

events were James McConnell, Chouteau Johnson, A. Courtney Campbell, and James Drake. Dr. Vivian Slaughter was a second lieutenant in the London Fusiliers, William A. Fleet, a lieutenant in the Grenadier Guards, and Wynne Cameron, a private soldier in the British army operating in Mesopotamia. In the various medical units dispatched to France were Doctors Robert Bryan, George Benet, W. D. Anderson, Jr., Charles T. Porter, and M. Blanchard. R. K. Gooch resigned his appointment as Rhodes Scholar to enter the service of the American Ambulance Hospital at Neuilly, and John Ray was also employed in the same service.

At the general meeting of the Faculty in October, 1916, the question was brought up for discussion whether or not the University should introduce a system of military instruction and training among the students. The committee which was named to report upon its advisability earnestly recommended the establishment within the limits of one or more units of the Reserved Officers Training Corps, in harmony with the regulations of the War Department issued during the previous September. But it was not until March 15, 1917, that this proposal was approved by the General Faculty. Eight days afterwards, the Board of Visitors convened, and having decided to carry out the recommendations of the original committee, instructed the rector, Mr. Gordon, and the President, to make application to the War Department for a Federal officer who would undertake the functions of a professor or assistant professor of military science and tactics. The Board were scrupulous to put on record that it was not their purpose to incorporate for good in the life of the institution a department of military science, thus conferring on it the character of a military school. Rather, they said, they were impelled to take

this step by considerations of patriotic duty, and on account of the urgent requirements of the country in a definite national crisis. "We hereby solemnly pledge to Woodrow Wilson, President of the United States," they added, "the loyal cooperation of his alma mater in the defense of that liberty, honor, and independence, which George Washington and Thomas Jefferson did so much to establish and maintain."

The General Faculty assembled on March 27. "If war is declared," said the President of the University on that occasion, "there will be great need of men with academic training to serve as officers. This institution should take a leading place among other institutions of a similar grade in this country towards the formation of units for a Reserve Officers' Corps." The dean of every department was instructed to appoint a committee of its professors to consider how to make the resources of that department most useful to the Nation. But a more important agency was the Council or Committee on National Service appointed at a somewhat later date. Its general function was to bring about such an adjustment in the current life of the University as the military situation called for. Of this committee, the President was the chairman, and Professor Echols, the vice-chairman. It held its first session on April 1. Military committees were then chosen for all the departments out of the membership of the minor faculties, and shelter was provided for military storage. It was decided to recommend to the Board of Visitors that a military course should be introduced into the circle of the studies that would be entitled to credit for degrees; and also that the Federal officer should be admitted to a seat at the Faculty table.

Lieut.-Colonel James A. Cole, U. S. A., retired, had been appointed as the military instructor. He was a graduate of the United States Military Academy; had won distinction in the Indian, Spanish, and Philippine Wars; and at the time of his withdrawal from the active list, was attached to the Sixth Cavalry, and was entitled to wear three foreign service badges. Arriving at the University during Easter Week, he took up the performance of his duties at once, and prosecuted them with such skill and energy that very soon the corps of his pupils,—who included four-fifths of all the students, and over one-half of the Faculty,—was in so advanced a stage of training as to allow of its being divided into regular companies, under the command of those of the young men who had been drilled in military schools or in the National Guard. Before three weeks had passed, these companies were able to go through the manoeuvres without a hitch, and even without an appearance of serious awkwardness. By April 19, about eight hundred students had been enrolled. They came upon the field in all sorts of dress,—golf costumes, tennis suits, summer flannels, military school uniforms, and Plattsburg khaki. Colonel Cole lectured once a week on military science. This course, however, was optional.

A special committee, appointed by the University Council on National Service, submitted a report which laid down the general policy to be pursued by the institution so long as the war should last: (1) all the resources, in the way of men and equipment, which it possessed, should be put at the disposal of the National Government; (2) its regular functions and activities should not be interrupted; (3) the students under twenty-one years of age,—who were not eligible to commissions in the Federal Military and Naval forces,—

should continue in their classes at the University of Virginia, and if physically fit, prepare themselves for the front by acquiring the military training offered on the campus; (4) the departments of engineering and medicine, and the hospital also, should be used for the national benefit; (5) all college athletics should be suspended; and (6) leave of absence should be granted to all members of the Faculty and officers of administration whose offer of their services should be accepted by the government at Washington.

By the end of the session of 1916-17, when the United States had been involved in the war only during two months, about three hundred and thirty-four alumni of the University of Virginia were taking an active part in the hostilities, in one way or another. Sixty-eight of these were enrolled in the ambulance unit, and the remainder in the other military sections. Seven hundred and eighty-four students and twenty-four professors were registered in the Reserve Officers' Training Corps, while about forty-six of the graduates were stationed in the widely dispersed camps.

Before the session of 1917-18 began, there was organized an impressive series of new college studies for the benefit of the matriculates who expected ultimately to enter the Federal service. They embraced meteorology, oceanography, elements of electrical engineering, telephony, telegraphy and signaling, navigation, field astronomy, automobiles, timber characteristics and uses, practical Spanish, political geography, photography, international law and diplomacy, engineering, geology, plane surveying, topographical drawing and military service and tactics. Professors Rodman, Mitchell, Hancock, Newcomb, and Colonel Cole were the instructors in these varied courses.

LVI. *The World War — Pacifism Suppressed*

At this critical hour, when the institution was bending every pound of energy to assist in the prosecution of the War, and when so many of its sons were performing their full duty with alacrity in every department of the service, there occurred an incident which caused an indignant shock to the minds of the University authorities and the alumni in general. Professor Whipple, of the School of Journalism, was invited in November, 1917, to deliver an address before the Current Event Club of the Sweet Briar Female College. He chose as his topic, *The Meaning of Pacifism*; and before a word of it was spoken, he sent a summary of its contents to numerous newspapers throughout Virginia, with the request that it should be published at least in part.

The substance of the address was printed in several of the Virginia-papers; and as soon as President Alderman read it as thus published, he issued a formal statement. "Officially and personally," he declared, "I repudiate the reported utterances of Professor Whipple as unpatriotic and calculated to give aid and comfort to the enemies of the Republic in a grave moment of national peril." All the members of the Faculty who were then in residence joined in a protest, which was drafted only two days after the address was delivered. "We consider such sentiments," they said, "disloyal to our national policy and deserving condemnation by all patriotic citizens." "The offense," they added, "was aggravated by the circumstance that copies were supplied to the public press of Virginia, with the intention of disseminating these disloyal opinions among the people,—opinions the more readily made current when uttered by a professor of the State University." "Professor Whipple," they continued, "had distorted and abused

academic freedom"; and in conclusion, they unanimously pronounced his views "to be discreditable to a teacher of an institution which had consistently sought, since the inception of the war, to instil into her sons,—graduate and undergraduate,—the spirit of loyalty to the Government, and the determination to present an undivided front to the enemy."

In anticipation of the meeting of the Board of Visitors, President Alderman, in order to express the feeling of himself, the Faculty, and the alumni, drew up a statement for their consideration, in which he vigorously characterized Professor Whipple's utterance, "as a document of disloyalty; a counsel of national dishonor; a frank incitement to inactivity in the presence of aggression; a condemnation of God in national leadership; a plan for the impairment of the Nation's spirit and courage in the face of grave national peril; a disparagement of those who were willing to die to win a peace based on freedom rather than to accept, without struggle, a peace based on servitude."

The Board of Visitors having convened, and having heard and weighed Professor Whipple's defense of his conduct, which he delivered in person, adopted President Alderman's recommendation that his appointment as adjunct instructor of journalism should be rescinded; and that his chair should be pronounced vacant. Their action was accompanied by words which demonstrated their abhorrence of the pacifist sentiments which had been expressed in that teacher's ill-timed speech. The principal of the Sweet Briar College very emphatically denied that she had been in sympathy with such unpatriotic views. "I gave myself no concern," she wrote the President of the University, on November 22, "about any effect that the address might have outside,

because we are secure at Sweet Briar from unpleasant publicity, as the happenings here are given to the papers always through us. The papers this morning were a disagreeable surprise, and I felt that the Professor took advantage of the invitation sent entirely through the students,—indeed, the nature of his theme was not known to the Faculty.”

LVII. *The World War — Effect on Attendance*

In the statement which President Alderman submitted to the General Assembly in January, 1918, he estimated the loss in young men in the college department at one hundred and forty-four; in the graduate, at forty-four; in the law, at one hundred and forty-four; in the medical, at ten; in the engineering, at twenty-nine,— a total of three hundred and seventy-one, or thirty-five per cent. By January, 1918, the enrolment had shrunk from one thousand and sixty-four students to seven hundred.

At a meeting of the Board of Visitors, held on April 5, 1918, a special committee was appointed to make all the arrangements required for the establishment at the University of a branch of the projected United States Army School for truck-drivers. Professor Newcomb was put in general charge of this task, with instructions to provide spacious and comfortable accommodations for six hundred privates, seven officers, and forty instructors in field and shop. The barracks were ultimately erected; and they were occupied continuously from May 15 to November 15. Fifteen members of the engineering department were picked out to be instructed in shop-work, and twenty-five from the College at large, in road-building. A separate school was set up for their benefit, in which Professor Hancock superintended the machine and shop work and Professor Hyde, the road

construction. There were forty enlisted men in the work-shop division and forty in the machine-shop division. Eighty were enrolled in the class of engineering drawing; forty in the class of automobile repairs; forty in the class of electric wiring; sixteen in that of automobile construction; and sixty-one in that of wireless telegraphy.

What was the history of the regular departments during the session of 1917-18? The following table will disclose how the attendance of first-year students, during that session, compared with the like attendance during the five preceding years:

	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18
College Department	197	206	243	274	287	225
Graduate Department	10	16	10	11	16	4
Law Department	75	81	58	44	61	18
Medical Department	18	15	17	12	9	21
Engineering Department..	35	34	37	56	51	48
Total	324	344	357	385	418	313

It will be perceived, by an examination of the preceding figures, that the graduate and law departments, owing to the maturity of their students, showed, by 1917-18, a remarkable shrinkage in their attendance. The total enrolment for the law department that session was ninety-nine; and of this number, about twenty withdrew before the close of the last term. A part of the course, because of the absence of Professor Dobie in service, was dropped. In consequence of the increased interest in the French tongue, the classes in the School of Romanic Languages were able to retain their numerical strength, but those in geology fell off nearly one-third. This school was actively employed in investigations relating to industrial preparedness. The attendance in the School of Biology and Agriculture began with fifty-

seven students. During the war, Professor Lewis, of this school, was a consulting biologist of the United States Bureau of Mines; and in cooperation with Professor Kepner, carried on a series of experiments for the detection of gas. The Schools of Latin and Greek suffered little loss in students, while the Schools of English and English Literature, not only retained their popularity, but even added to it by lectures on war poetry, and the other literary aspects of the conflict.

Almost the only lectures delivered by Professor Mitchell were those which related to navigation and field astronomy. In the School of Economics, the loss in undergraduate courses amounted to one-fourth, and in graduate, to one-half or even to two-thirds. The School of Forestry sensibly increased in importance,—Professor Jones was one of the three enlisting officers appointed for the regiments composed of foresters and lumbermen; and he was also in charge of all the forest patrolmen of Virginia. There were one hundred and ten students in the department of engineering. This represented a shrinkage of nearly one-fifth in number. But of all the professional departments, the medical probably had the most serious obstructions to impede its work, although its attendance grew rather than fell away: (1) the cost of material for use in the laboratories was almost prohibitive in exorbitancy; and (2) the class of young men who had formerly served as assistants were drawn off to the war, and no substitutes were to be obtained. The library, for want of the necessary funds, was constrained to shut its doors at night, and to limit its purchases of new books; but its usefulness was not otherwise impaired.

It was the impression of careful observers that the general effect of the war influences had, so far, been to

deteriorate the spirit of scholarship by weakening the attention and diminishing the assiduity of the students. The average standing in 1917-18, however, seems to have been at least higher than in 1916-17,—it was 85 in 1914-15; 64.1 in 1916-17; and 76.4 in 1917-18. The average standing of the degree men was slightly more creditable,—in 1916-17, it was 86; and in 1917-18, it was 79.3. The shrinkage in the numerical strength of the teaching staff was too small to afford an explanation for this decline. In 1916-17, there were actively employed with their classes twenty-three full professors, four associate professors, thirteen adjunct professors, sixteen instructors, thirteen permanent assistants, and three student assistants,—a total corps of eighty-two. In 1917-18, on the other hand, there were present for duty twenty-four professors, three associate professors, thirteen adjunct professors, twelve instructors, eleven permanent assistants and eight student assistants,—a total corps of sixty-nine.

LVIII. *The World War — Students' Army Training Corps*

We have seen that the University of Virginia, when the United States entered the war, possessed a Reserve Officers' Training Corps, which had been equipped and instructed in the infantry drill at the expense of the Government. In August, 1917, the draft age was suddenly lowered in order to meet the exigencies of the new programme, which called for an armed force of four million men. It was found that one hundred thousand officers would be needed just as soon as they could be made available. Experience had demonstrated that the body of drafted men would only be able to furnish a very small proportion of these officers; and the volunteer

officers in the special training camps had already begun to decline in number, owing to the exhaustion of the source of supply. The next best material were the young men who had recently matriculated in the colleges, or were preparing to do so. The different seats of learning possessed facilities for training at least one hundred and seventy-five thousand men, and the National Government wisely decided to use these advantages, which were already in existence.

The arrangement that was made with the University of Virginia,—which was common to all,—required that it should furnish such instruction as the War Department should approve or prescribe; house the young men in a sanitary manner; supply meat of the quantity and quality demanded in the standard army ration; provide grounds suitable for military instruction and adapted to the drill, and also offices for the military administration of the unit; and cooperate closely with the War Department. The Government, on its part, agreed to provide for the military training of the young men; to furnish uniforms and equipment for their use; to supply the cots, blankets, and bed-sacks which they would need; and to pay the sum of one dollar and fifty-two cents a day for each student-soldier on active duty.

From these terms, it will be perceived that the War Department's object was to induct men into the army, as required by the selected draft law, and at the same time, to permit them to remain in college for military and educational instruction, until it should be expedient to remove them elsewhere. But the main purpose was, of course, to convert the matriculates into soldiers; their conversion into scholars was,—very properly under the circumstances,—a secondary purpose. In short, it was aimed to develop in them those personal qualities which

had been found, by experience, to be indispensable to an officer's success; and, in addition, to impart to them simultaneously the noblest patriotic ideals, and the ability to defend these ideals on the field of battle. The University of Virginia, like all its fellow institutions, was to become a reservoir for the supply of good material for competent officers and skilled mechanics, and also a medium for the elimination of bad material before its training had brought about serious expense to the Government. As fast as one group of young men would be drawn from the precincts into active service, their places would be taken by a new quota, obtained either by voluntary induction, or by the involuntary draft.

The rule of assortment and assignment adopted by the War Department was substantially as follows: selected young men, physically qualified and over eighteen years of age, who had received only a grammar school education, were, in general, to enter special training detachments in order to be taught along mechanical lines of military value. Should any of them prove themselves to be good material for officers, they were to be transferred to a unit established in some college; and they were to remain members of that unit until fitted to enter a central officers' training camp. On the other hand, young men who had enjoyed a high school education were to be permitted at once to enter college for advanced training as officers and technical experts; and those among them who should exhibit promise under this training were to be retained there until qualified for admission to a central officers' training camp, or for entrance at once into active service as technical experts. Those who should fail to develop any aptitude were to be sent either to a non-commissioned officers' school or to the nearest department brigade.

From these provisions, it is to be seen that each student-soldier was to be allowed the fullest opportunity to obtain just that kind of training which was precisely adapted to his natural abilities. There were, in each institution of learning so utilized, two sections among the young men: one was the collegiate section; the other, the vocational,—such, for instance, as the school of chauffeurs established at the University of Virginia at an early date. The members of the collegiate section were transferred every three months in age groups. The student twenty years old went first; the one, nineteen years old, went next; the one, eighteen years old, followed last. Members of the vocational section remained under instruction during the three months, and were then assigned to those departments of the service which called for technical experts. In the curriculum of the Students' Army Training Corps, the number of hours to be devoted to practical and theoretical military lessons and physical exercises was limited to eleven a week, while the number allowed for allied subjects,—which included the time required for lectures, recitations, laboratory instruction, and preparation for that instruction,—was not to exceed forty-two a week. These allied subjects consisted of English, the French and German languages, mathematics, physics, physiology, chemistry, biology, geology, geography, topography, map-making, meteorology, astronomy, hygiene, sanitation, descriptive geometry, military law, and government.

The University of Virginia was included in the list of institutions which were allowed a naval section, but its quota in that division was restricted to fifty men. These men were inducted by temporary officers. The entire military unit was organized with Colonel Cole in command, while subordinate in authority to him were

one captain, three first-lieutenants, and sixteen second-lieutenants. The automobile training station was, at this time, under the command of Captain A. T. Budgell. There were five first-lieutenants and four second subject to his orders. As provided for by the War Department, the general ceremony of induction took place on October 1 (1918). The total number of young men registered, on that occasion, was one thousand and sixteen, the great majority of whom were brought into the army of the United States as simple privates. The following table shows the most important numerical facts relating to the membership of the Students' Army Training Corps at the beginning of the session of 1918-19:

	<i>College</i>	<i>Medical Department</i>	<i>Engineering Department</i>	<i>Total</i>
Inducted	476	76	134	686
Enrolled	61	...	11	72
Naval Unit	32	...	19	51
Naval Reserve Force ...	8	4	3	15

These statistics reveal that nearly three-fourths of the entire number of matriculates in the college department were enlisted in the Corps. About five hundred and ninety-eight first-year students were registered on the occasion of the induction, which was nearly double the number of the first-year students who had entered the University at the beginning of the previous session; and this fact was the more significant when it is recalled that the law and graduate departments were eliminated when the Students' Army Training Corps was organized; and that a large proportion of the matriculates of 1917-18, — who would have otherwise returned, — had been ordered into active service. The explanation of this increase lay in the incentive which now existed for every young man of draft age, who had obtained a high school

education, to enter the University, and prepare himself to hold a commission in the army or navy.

The records disclose that the largest section of the Students' Army Training Corps at the University of Virginia were the sons of farmers. The sons of merchants were nearly equal to them in number; and, after the sons of merchants, came, in the following gradations, the sons of lawyers, of physicians, of clergymen, of real estate agents, of bankers, of railway employees, of clerks, of teachers, and of brokers. The greatest proportion of the soldier-students in their first year had been educated in the public schools, either of Virginia or of the other commonwealths. Indeed, three hundred and forty of the entire five hundred and ninety-eight had been thus instructed. The private school had sent one hundred and forty-six only; the several colleges but seventy-four.

In a former chapter, a brief allusion was made to the effect which the war conditions prevailing before the establishment of the Students' Army Training Corps had had upon the scholarship of the young men. It was thought,— as we have already stated,— that their power of application showed a decline during that earlier period, although some improvement was perceptible in the course of the session of 1917-18. All the existing testimony seems to demonstrate that, from an academic point of view, the work of the Students' Army Training Corps was still more unsatisfactory. Indeed, there was no leisure allowed, and no facilities provided, for the maintenance of the old spirit of academic acquisitiveness. "The most ardent student," it was said, "learned nothing except in the hours spent in the lecture-room and the laboratory. The less earnest student learned nothing on any occasion. Then came the armistice, and after that, academic chaos!"

It was the opinion of Professor James M. Page, the dean of the College department, that the end of the war arrived too soon after the enrolment of the corps to leave sufficient time for the proper organization of the new system. This seems to have been substantially the conclusion of the President of the University also. In an address delivered on Founder's Day, in 1919, he said, "The experiment,—though there adhered in it boundless possibilities for investigation, test, and discovery, in intensive training for leadership,—had no chance for fruition or practical success. Every possible misfortune befell it; and it was practically nullified before it was born. I have only praise both for the men who conceived the idea, and for those who were intrusted with the details of undertaking; and it shall live in our memory as an honest effort of high-minded and courageous soldiers and teachers to perform a sort of educational miracle in martial defense."

LIX. *The World War,—Bureau and Ambulance Unit*

So far, our attention has been confined to the war history of the University strictly within the precincts. We will now proceed to relate the history of the institution in connection with the activities which took place beyond those narrow limits. We will first give an account of the organizations with which it was associated in this outside work; and will then consider the achievements of the alumni in actual service.

The Inter-Collegiate Intelligence Bureau was created at the suggestion of William McClellan, of the University of Pennsylvania. Lewis D. Crenshaw received the appointment of local adjutant for the University of Virginia, and with the assistance of Professor William H.

Faulkner, and the ladies of the community, he was soon successful in making a military census of the great majority of the alumni. Responses for information regarding themselves were obtained from about twenty-five hundred; and these facts were reported to the Bureau for permanent record.

An organization of another character was the University of Virginia Ambulance Section. Among the first calls sent out by the Inter-Collegiate Intelligence Bureau was one for the recruiting of ambulance companies, which were to be enrolled in the United States Army Ambulance Service. It seems that, in May, 1917, the Surgeon-General of the War Department had requested the Bureau to furnish fourteen hundred men for the performance of ambulance duty in France. These men were to become members of the Medical Enlisted Reserve Corps, as required under the provisions of the National Defense Act of June, 1916. It was anticipated that this body would arrive in France by June, 1917. The unit assigned to the University of Virginia was to comprise thirty-six men, whose ages were not to fall below eighteen years or to rise above forty-five. Application was early made for permission to furnish two units; and consent having been obtained, the University, through the alumni office, was successful, in spite of many obstacles, in assembling, by May 23, the two companies thus authorized. It was said of these two units,— which were the University's first organized contribution to the service of the Nation,— that they distinguished themselves, not only by their devotion to all the tasks assigned them, but also by their exceptional courage under the heaviest fire. Many were wounded and many gassed; and they were awarded numerous commissions and decorations for their conduct.

Another practical step taken by the University of Virginia, a few months later, was the establishment of a bureau in Paris. The American University Bureau, whose purpose was to be of assistance to all alumni in the military arm, had already been organized in that city, and it was due to the energetic initiative of Lewis D. Crenshaw that his own alma mater was able to co-operate with it. By an untiring personal campaign, and the distribution of many thousand printed circulars, he succeeded in collecting about nine thousand dollars for the support of the proposed bureau, without counting the one thousand reserved for travelling expenses and for different items of equipment. He was appointed the director of the bureau, and granted a leave of absence from his duties as alumni secretary and editor of the *Alumni News*. Professor Bardin was chosen to fill these two offices temporarily, and Miss Nina Stout, an assistant, was put in charge of the alumni files. Accompanied by numerous trunks, weighted down with stationery and the like miscellaneous material, and a large assortment of cigarettes, Crenshaw set sail on November 30 (1917) from "a port in America," to use his own description, "in the good boat *Ça ne fait rien*, and landed ten days later 'somewhere in France.' "

The University of Virginia Bureau found shelter in the same building as the American University Bureau. The walls of its four rooms were soon adorned with pictures that reminded the visitors of Jefferson's academic village, and the entire suite was furnished with many of the comfortable appliances of a small club-house. The apartment of the larger bureau nearby supplied a restaurant, a general reading-room, baths, and an abundant canteen; and there was also to be discovered in its files the name of every American University man en-

rolled in the service in Europe. But in addition to its proximity to these advantages, the University of Virginia Bureau possessed special allurements of its own. Hither came the alumni of that University, and of other Southern institutions, to enjoy the hospitality which was whole-heartedly held out to them, to the utmost limit of the resources of the establishment; and besides these visitors, there were numerous foreigners who were interested in the likenesses, on the walls, of Thomas Jefferson, Woodrow Wilson, and Edgar Allan Poe, or in the classic architecture of the University. "My aim," said Mr. Crenshaw at the time, "is to make the bureau a home for the Virginia alumni, where they can step across the threshold into Old Virginia. When a couple of travel-stained boys come rolling through from the front, and start getting the dirt off in time to meet two other of their friends,—whom I happen to know are in town,—one of the main reasons for the existence of the bureau is served. It is the personal side all the way through, which no other organization over here can give. I could cite instance after instance of brothers, cousins, and intimate friends, who have got in touch with each other over here through the mails, or face to face, through the mediation of the Virginia Bureau. It is almost uncanny the way Tom from Flanders, or Dick from Alsace, or Henry from Southern France, will land here the same day,—all attracted by the old orange and blue banner,—and fall on each other's necks, in a regular grizzly bear."¹

The Paris editions of the *Herald*, *Tribune*, and *London Mail* were spread out on the reading table; and so were the lighter French publications. Useful maps of

¹ Mr. Crenshaw's assistant was Madame Des Noyers, whose kindness to the young soldiers visiting the bureau was often a subject of grateful reference in their letters to the superintendent of the bureau, after their return to the trenches.

Paris and France were tacked to the walls; and near at hand, was the file, not only of all the alumni of the University of Virginia then stationed in Europe, but also of all those in America who were preparing for service abroad. The list of the living alumni of every age was also accessible.

One of the important functions of the bureau was to forward the letters addressed in its care to the young alumni at the front, whose precise whereabouts were not known to the writers. So soon as the bureau received information that some one of them had been wounded, its aid was offered him in whatever manner would best assure his comfort, while to the stricken alumni lying in the wards of the local hospitals, cigarettes, chocolates, socks, toothpowder, and magazines, were sent in as large quantities as its limited resources would allow. The bureau also acted as the purchasing agent of the alumni in the trenches. "The demands," said Mr. Crenshaw, "ranged from trigonometry to five readable French novels; from kodak films to aviators' goggles; and from a French Easter rabbit, toy for a little Alsace kid, to a bottle of something that would cure pustules. Every day brought its requests; and very often these requests were for theatre, hotel, or train reservations."

Another useful purpose which the bureau served was that, for many of these young men, it afforded the practical facilities of a bank; money was deposited with the director to be transferred to some one at home in America; and he also became the custodian of all sorts of articles, large and small, which the alumni departing for the front wished to leave behind for safe-keeping. In addition, he was the fountain of information to all who were on furlough in Paris about the operas, museums, restaurants, and stores of the city. The bureau

was also the centre of informal gatherings; and on New Year's Day, 1918, there was an abundant dinner, in which a large turkey, stuffed with marrons in the French style,—a toothsome object in those narrow times,—occupied the place of honor on the table. The anniversary of General Lee's birthday was also celebrated with great distinction. In the following April, a tablet of marble and bronze was, with the participation of the bureau, attached to the house in which Jefferson had lived between 1785 and 1789, while minister to France.

LX. *The World War — Base Hospital No. 41*

One of the most vital and successful of all the services which the University of Virginia performed in the prosecution of the war in France was the establishment of Base Hospital No. 41 in Paris. It had, at one time, been hoped that the institution would be able to organize such a hospital through its own medical faculty alone, but it was quickly perceived that this could only be done by closing the doors of the medical department. It was then hoped that such a hospital could be founded by enlisting the medical staff from the ranks of its alumni. After interviews with Dr. W. D. Anderson,—who had recently come back from France,—and the President of the University, Dr. W. H. Goodwin, the associate professor of surgery, and Lewis D. Crenshaw, who had been instrumental in organizing the two ambulance units, visited Washington for the purpose of consulting with Colonel Kean, the Director General of Medical Relief of the Red Cross. He approved of the selection of the staff from the alumni, on condition that the enrolled *personnel* should satisfy all the prerequisites laid down for the medical enlisted reserve corps; and that the nurses too should hold the diplomas of a training school

in a hospital having under treatment, on the average, not less than fifty patients a day.

The typical base hospital called for twenty-four medical officers commissioned in the Medical Officers' Reserve Corps, one chaplain, fifty primary nurses, fifteen reserve nurses, and one hundred and fifty-three men, of ages ranging between eighteen and forty. Fifteen civilian employees were also required. An organization committee composed of President Alderman, Professor Hough, Professor Flippin, Professor Goodwin, Miss Cowling,—the superintendent of the University training school,—and Lewis D. Crenshaw, was authorized to assemble this force for the projected Base Hospital No. 41. Miss Cowling enrolled sixty-five graduate nurses, with nine additional in reserve. In order to secure the men, an application was first made to all alumni of the classes from 1908 to 1916, exclusive of former medical and engineering students; but the choice was not restricted to this circle, or even to the alumni of the University of Virginia, for, as already stated, there were needed experts in an extraordinary variety of trades,—assistants in laboratory, dispensary, and operating-room, bakers, carpenters, cobblers, electricians, interpreters, machinists, metal-workers, orderlies, pharmacists, photographers, plumbers, stenographers, telegraph and telephone operators, watch-menders, waiters, and barbers.

To avoid the delay that would be caused by rejection for physical deficiencies, about three hundred and fifty of the applicants were accepted,—from which number, the desired one hundred and fifty-two sound men were subsequently to be chosen; but before this could be effected, the order arrived from Washington that the *personnel* were not to be formally enlisted without further instructions, and moreover, it was announced that the

right to enlist at all was suspended for the time being. The Director General of Medical Relief also required that the medical staff should be increased to thirty, the number of nurses to one hundred, and the total of the *personnel* to two hundred, just as soon as the right to enlist was restored. But these directions were afterwards recalled, as well as the earlier order to enlarge the capacity of the hospital to one thousand beds.

The confusion resulting from this fickle and halting course of action could not be removed by the repeated visits which Professor Goodwin made to Washington. At last, all further effort seemed to be rendered hopeless by the announcement that the Government could not then furnish the necessary supplies; and that, unless Base Hospital No. 41 could procure them at its own expense, it would not be called into service at once. It was estimated that forty thousand dollars was the smallest sum that would be required for the purchase of the indispensable equipment. How was this to be obtained? Everything was in a completed state for an early start if the money could only be got. All the physicians had joined the Medical Officers' Reserve Corps, and all the nurses, the Red Cross, in anticipation of certain and early employment in France. Staff and *personnel* were only waiting for the word of command to enter upon the first stage of their undertaking.

At a joint meeting of the respective representatives of the branches of the Red Cross in Norfolk and Richmond and the base hospitals Nos. 41 and 54, forty thousand dollars was promised by the Richmond and Norfolk chapters; and the amount to be thus secured was increased to \$53,500 by the separate guarantee of the chapters of Portsmouth and Lynchburg; but this generous action seems to have been rendered practically nugatory by the

opposition of the General American Red Cross to the use of such funds for the equipment of base hospitals at all. At this critical moment, it was announced that the Benevolent and Protective Order of Elks had collected from its own members one million dollars to be expended for war relief. It happened that the Exalted Ruler of this great organization was Frederick Harper, of Lynchburg, a loyal and distinguished alumnus of the University of Virginia. It occurred to Dr. Goodwin that, through the personal intervention of Mr. Harper, Base Hospital No. 41 might be successfully financed; and this expectation soon proved to be well grounded. The Elks' War Relief Commission, at Mr. Harper's solicitation, promised to appropriate sixty thousand dollars for that purpose, and even more, should it be required.

Dr. Goodwin and Mr. Fanning, the secretary of the Order of Elks, met in Washington and arranged with the purchasing department of the American Red Cross for the acquisition of the necessary equipment. This equipment embraced all the materials essential to a complete outfit for kitchen, mess, and laundry on a great scale; for the commensurate office, ward, and operating rooms; and for the living-rooms of doctors, nurses, and enlisted men. There were also needed many sets of surgical instruments and x-ray apparatus, and also numerous ambulance trucks, bicycles, and touring cars. Electric fixtures, drugs, surgical dressings, splints, and orthopedic appliances also were called for in large quantities; and an ice-plant too must be provided.

When the medical staff of Base Hospital No. 41 had been first chosen, Dr. Hugh Nelson, of the University Faculty, who was a captain in rank, was appointed chief; but he was afterwards ordered to Camp Lee; and while

there, was placed in charge of a field hospital. This constrained him to withdraw from the staff of Base Hospital No. 41. The corps of officers, as finally made up, consisted of Major W. H. Goodwin, director, Major Lomax Gwathmey, chief of the surgical section; Major Charles S. Venable, quartermaster; and nine others who held the commission of captain, and one, Rev. Beverly D. Tucker, Jr., that of chaplain. There were also twelve first-lieutenants, most of whom belonged to the surgical division; there were, in addition, two connected with the laboratory section and two with the dental; and there was, besides, one expert in the use of the Roentgen ray. Some of these officers had been pursuing special courses in medicine or surgery, in anticipation of their duties in the hospital service,—of this number, were Major Gwathmey, Major Venable, and Captain Minor C. Lile. Among the one hundred nurses under the leadership of Miss Cowling were dieticians, anaesthetists, assistant training school superintendents, and assistants in the operating room.

We have seen that the right to enlist the *personnel* of one hundred and fifty-two men,—afterwards increased to two hundred,—had been suspended, for a time, by order from the War Department. On August 30 (1917), this order was withdrawn, and during the following month, the men were assembled, physically examined, and enrolled as privates. They were then temporarily dismissed. It was not until February 20, (1918) that they,—then residing in their widely dispersed homes,—were summoned by telegraph to return to the University for mobilization. Instructions had been brought from Washington by Lieutenant H. T. Jackson, whom Major Goodwin had chosen as his as-

sistant, that the Hospital force, so soon as it could be got together, should set out for Camp Sevier, in South Carolina.

The first roll was called in the shadow of the University hospital, and all,—although some resided as far apart as Seattle and Tampa,—answered to their names. The drill took place on Lambeth Field; and the exercises with the bicycles were carried out in the region surrounding Charlottesville. Daily lectures were also delivered on the various subjects which would fall under observation in the active service. The members of the hospital contingent were sheltered in the local hotels and the dormitories of East Range; and the meals of a large number were provided by the kitchen of Commons Hall.

On the 5th of March, they entrained for Camp Sevier. After their arrival there, they were, for a time, put in quarantine, in accord with regulations to which all newcomers had to submit. At first, they were housed in a long row of canvas tents, where their beds consisted of canvas cots padded with straw-stuffed sacks, while plain wooden boxes served as their tables, chairs, and wardrobes. Their principal amusement now seems to have been to exchange flights of arrows of wit with the tenants of an enclosure nearby in which troops soon to depart were always stationed. This enclosure was known as the bull pen. Its occupants, at this time, showed, by taunts and gibes, their contempt for the raw "rookies" over the way, who, still unequipped, were compelled to wear their old civilian clothes, and to remain,—in appearance at least,—entirely alien to their real professional character. To prepare them to combat exposure to disease, the members of the unit were subjected to inoculations for typhoid and small-pox. In this interval of waiting, they did a great amount of rough work,—swept the roads,

dug ditches, prized up the stumps. "We did not know any better," sadly says Bernard P. Chamberlain, one of the members of the unit, to whom we are indebted for an interesting diary of these events. "We worked our heads off nearly. People stopped to watch us, their looks showing admiration and surprise."

Near the end of April, the contingent was assigned to duty in Camp Sevier itself. Here the hospital work began. There were various wards in the camp hospital, — one for prisoners, one for lunatics, others for sufferers from different maladies. Down to this time, the medical officers of the unit had not reported for duty, since they were engaged elsewhere, as already stated, in pursuing special preparatory lines of research. Lieut.-Colonel Julian Cabell had now taken over the command. The unit, having been ordered to Camp Mills, on Long Island, was safely established there by June 19. Here Major Goodwin, who had been promoted to the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel, was assigned to the position of head of the surgical branch. This camp was situated only four hundred yards from aviation field No. 1, and the members of the unit were awakened the morning following their arrival by the buzzing sound of aeroplanes flying overhead. The duties consisted of day drills and night guard; but these were cut down as far as possible so as to give the men much leisure to enjoy the amusements of New York City.

LXI. *The World War — Base Hospital*
No 41, *Continued*

On July 6, the unit embarked on the *Scotian* for Europe. There were thirty-nine officers and one hundred and ninety-eight men on board. The nurses' corps, which mobilized in New York, departed by a boat which

sailed on a later date. There were fifteen vessels in the convoy, besides the *Scotian*; and all were escorted by a battle cruiser, which steamed well to the head. For some distance, the ships were accompanied by a small dirigible, a large biplane, and five sub-chasers of the mosquito fleet. A few days before, a German U-boat had been reported to be prowling off the coast of New England, and there was a chance of its bobbing up in the water nearby at any moment now so long as the shores of America remained on the horizon. Every vessel in the convoy carried depth bombs; and an unceasing watch was kept up during the twenty-four hours. On the third day of the voyage, a target resembling a periscope was dropped some distance forward in the waves, with orders to every one of the gunners of the fleet to fire at it. The route was altered constantly. First, the ships made for the south, but afterwards swerved so far towards the northeast that the north star seemed to be shining in the vault of Heaven just above the masthead. There was no difficulty, during that interval, in reading on deck until ten o'clock at night.

The members of the unit wore their life preservers throughout the day, and slept with them under their bunks. During two nights, no one was permitted to take off any portion of his clothes except his shoes; at the most unexpected moments, all were summoned to abandon the ship; and there were also daily drills for boat-fire. At one stage of the voyage, the fleet passed through a large quantity of drifting wreckage; but no other evidence of the enemy's former presence was to be seen. The hours were enlivened by prize fights and other strenuous tests of physical strength and skill. And on one occasion, there was a spectacular swimming match. A gun was fired on one of the ships, and simultaneously a man

leaped from its hurricane deck into the water and turned his face towards the rear of the convoy. Mounting to the hurricane deck of a second vessel, he again leapt into the ocean as the second gun went off; and after thus changing boats several times, he finally halted on the flagship, where he received, in solemn ceremony, the *croix de mer*.

On the approach to the British coast, the voyagers were met by a small cloud of destroyers. Afterwards, the ships entered the Clyde; and as they slowly advanced up that narrow stream, the men aboard greeted the Scotchmen on the shore with cries of "hoot mon." From every house, the Stars and Stripes were floating in the wind.

By July 19, the hospital unit had arrived at Southampton, and leaving that port for Havre, amid the moving strain of *My Old Kentucky Home*, they reached Paris on July 25, after spending a few days in a rest camp near the sea, where each batch of twelve men were compelled to sleep in a single tent eleven feet in diameter. Army trucks transported the unit to L'Ecole de la Legion d'Honneur at St. Denis, which was situated about five miles from the Place de l'Opera in Paris. As they rumbled through the teeming streets *en route*, they were greeted with a continuous roar of welcome from the populace, and were received at their destination with graceful and gentle formality by the principal and the other ladies in charge of the school, which had previously been devoted to the education of the daughters of the most distinguished families in France.

The Abbey of St. Denis was said to have been founded by the first Dagobert, and a portion of the original structure had been burned down during an incursion of Norman pirates. It was restored, in a very

much enlarged and beautified form, in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, and, in part, renovated in the eighteenth. All that remained of the mediaeval chapel and circular monastery was now used as a recreation hall. The modern chapel had been, at one time, the hall of the guards; and it was here that the coffins of the French monarchs rested before their final deposit in the vaults of the abbey. The southern end of the main building still displayed the Benedictine shield, on which was inscribed the one word *Pax*, surrounded by a wreath of thorns.

The unit had been in occupation of these historic edifices ten days before they received word that their equipment had been unloaded in France. In the meanwhile, the first steps had been taken to convert the contiguous buildings into one great hospital. Apartments were arranged on the first floor as administrative offices, dining halls, kitchens, and storage quarters, while on the second, the space was reserved for wards, operating rooms, laboratories, shock-rooms, x-ray rooms, and rooms for sterilizers. At the east end of the main structure, apartments were assigned to the dental experts and the experts on the eye, ear, and nose; and here too were placed additional laboratories. Although the hospital was designed for a thousand beds only, it was called upon, before the end of the war, to take in three thousand. Two of the hallways were converted into wards; and more space still was got by transferring the medical supplies to a separate roof. Fifty-two marquee tents were erected, each for the housing of thirty-seven patients; and the same number of patients respectively were cared for in the thirteen double Beaseneau tents which were afterwards put up. The chapel and the old receiving ward were also turned into apartments for the wounded,

while field kitchens were installed for the cooking of a larger quantity of food.

When the armistice was declared, Base Hospital No. 41 was ministering to the acute needs of twenty-nine hundred patients. The first convoy rolled in at midnight on August 16. There occurred at this moment a beautiful scene which those who witnessed it will never cease to remember. The kind and pious ladies of the school were standing near the main entrance, and as each of the litters was slowly borne in, one of the group, — all of whom knew only a few words of English, — would lean over each wounded man, and in her soft French accent whisper the one word, "welcome." By the end of the first week, there were seven hundred wounded soldiers concentrated in the wards. Between September 6 and 30, about two thousand in all were admitted, — General Foch's counter offensive was now at its height, — and occasionally, a convoy would embrace as many as four hundred patients. The five wards in the building accommodated about six hundred; the fifty tents, twenty-two hundred more; and the chapel, a considerable additional number.

Down to October 7, Base Hospital No. 41 served as an evacuation hospital only; it received patients directly from the front, to whom only first aid had already been given; and these men were sent on to a second hospital so soon as they were sufficiently improved to travel. The Base Hospital No. 41 was, therefore, filled with wounded whose condition demanded immediate surgical attention. These had passed first into the receiving ward, where they were washed and dressed; and, afterwards, they had been distributed in the supplementary wards, according to the state of their wounds. Many of the convalescent soldiers served as orderlies, stretcher-

bearers, and the like; and it was said that, without this assistance, all the work which had to be done in the buildings could never have been performed.

An epidemic of influenza broke out in October, which, by disabling one-fourth of the officers, nurses, and enlisted men, reduced the effective force to two hundred and thirty. These served throughout the twenty-four hours at a time when two thousand patients were in the hospital, and a complement of seven hundred were expected. About ten thousand meals had to be daily provided. Although between August 16 and January 17, 1918-19, about forty-eight hundred cases were treated,—of which, thirty-five hundred were surgical,—there were only sixty-eight deaths, of which, twenty-seven resulted from pneumonia that followed influenza. Only thirty-nine of the surgical cases were lost. Although there were ten such establishments situated in Paris, it is estimated that Base Hospital No. 41 received one-fourth of all the wounded who were brought to the city from the front. "A few air raids," says a member of the unit, "one a very spectacular daylight raid, the flashing and the booming of the guns on the Chateau Thierry line, and an occasional shell from Big Bertha, were the only things that made us realize that the greatest war of all time was in progress, except for our own men coming in from the trenches. We saw after all the more pitiable and the more trying side of war, with the glory and excitement of battle replaced by the grim battle of life and death that we fought with these men that made our victory possible."

Previous to October (1918), the Protestant services held in the hospital were conducted by Rev. R. F. Blackford, a member of the unit, who made the daily round of the wards; and after that date, Rev. Beverly D. Tucker,

Jr., the regular chaplain, took charge of the religious ministrations to those of his own faith, while a devoted priest of the Abbey of St. Denis served as the spiritual adviser and consoler of the Catholics. For the diversion of the tenants of the hospital, concerts and other musical entertainments were given by the representatives of the Young Men's Christian Association, and by the Knights of Columbus; and also, for their enjoyment, the first violinist of Paris played, with his most exquisite skill, before them, and the Fifth Regiment band of New York, in its turn, followed that kindly example. The Brotherhood of St. Andrew had organized a local chapter in the hospital, with Bernard P. Chamberlain as secretary; and at the meetings of the members, interesting short addresses were delivered and musical programmes offered. The Red Cross converted the theatre of the school into a recreation hall; and here, picture-shows and dramatic plays were presented.

In the course of the last months, basket-ball games were contested on the concrete tennis-court during the day, and even at night, under electric lamps. There were also tests of skill in boxing and wrestling. Football games out of doors and baseball within took place; and a field-meet was even arranged, but its events were forestalled by the dispersion of the convalescents. A few copies of a journal known as *Between Convoys* were issued. At Christmas, the corps of the Base Hospital contributed eleven hundred and twenty-eight francs for the support of two French children, whose father had been killed in battle, and who had been adopted by the unit. Their names were Yvonne and Georges Lefevre.

In a letter addressed to the Board of Visitors, in May, 1919, the Surgeon-General of the Army referred to the work of the corps as "the invaluable service

rendered by that splendid organization, Base Hospital No. 41 "; and he eulogized as a "glorious heritage of splendid achievement" the record of duty performed which its members would hand down to posterity. "The chief of the medical service," he added, "is very appreciative of the cooperative spirit shown by every medical officer of the Hospital, and at no time, has he ever heard one complaint of any work assigned him." "Most of these officers," a witness has stated, "had held previous appointments in hospitals as internes, but these same men bowed their heads over dressings hours every day, day after day, and were happy doing their utmost for the soldiers. The soldiers will never forget the nurses of Base Hospital No. 41 because their kindness and gentle care of the wounded began when the patient entered the receiving ward, and continued through the operating-room and various wards. At no time was a nurse ever too tired to adjust a pillow, or in other ways make a patient more comfortable and help him on to recovery by cheerful words."

LXII. *The World War — Service and Honors*

It is estimated that there were in the service of the Government, during the war, approximately two thousand, seven hundred and ten men who had been educated at the University of Virginia. The assignment of these was as follows: in the infantry, there were nine hundred and forty-six; in the medical corps, three hundred and ninety-three; in the regular artillery, sixty-five; in the quartermaster's department, thirty-one; in the cavalry, twenty-two; in the signal corps, eight; in the tank corps, four; in the ordnance, eleven; in the marine corps, forty-three; in the navy, two hundred and forty-seven; in the ambulance corps, eighty-four; in the British

service, twelve; in the Lafayette Escadrille, three; in the Young Men's Christian Association's War Service, twenty-seven; in the Red Cross, thirteen; and in the Salvation Army's War Service, one. About three hundred and ninety-three were unclassified.

The records reveal that, on March 31, 1918, there were eighteen colonels and lieutenant-colonels in the medical corps who were alumni of the institution; and in addition, there were twenty-nine majors in the medical corps, marine corps, and the regular army, combined. There were fifteen captains and twenty-five first-lieutenants in the medical corps, and four captains and five first-lieutenants in the marine. There were eighty-one captains in the regular army, and also two hundred and twenty-nine first-lieutenants, with six in the foreign service. There were eight first-lieutenants in the navy. There were two second-lieutenants in the marine corps, seventy in the army, and one in the navy. There were fifty-five sergeants, corporals, ensigns, and paymasters, in the army and navy together; and there were also four alumni, who, at this time, were serving as chaplains.

Major Hugh A. Bayne was judge-advocate in the reserve corps attached to the first contingent that went out with General Pershing; and Major Alexander N. Starke was the principal medical officer of the army which expelled the Germans from the St. Mihiel salient. Dr. Robert Bryan was the director of the Whitney Hospital at Neuilly and the medical adviser of the Roumanian Commission. Major Stuart McGuire was the director of Base Hospital No. 45, and Major Hugh H. Young, of the Johns Hopkins Biological Unit. Colonel Jefferson R. Kean was the Director General of the Medical Relief of Red Cross, which was in command of the United States ambulance service in France.

Many of the professors had an honorable share in the prosecution of the war beyond the confines of the campus. We have referred to the part which Professors Goodwin, Venable, and Hugh Nelson played in the medical service. Professor Pott was detailed to the United States Reserve Camp Division; Professor Hyde to naval aviation; Professors Kerr and Dobie to the military arm; Professor Rogers to the war bureau at Washington. Other professors who participated, in one form or another, outside of the institution, were Thomas Walker Page, John C. Manahan, C. M. Sparrow, J. C. Bardin, C. P. Olivier, and C. W. Paul. H. H. Lannigan served as one of the physical trainers for a section of the aviation corps.

How many citations of the sons of the University were there in the course of the World War? The following statement shows, not only their number, but also their special characters.¹ Beginning with the French decorations, there were fifty-one alumni who received the croix de guerre; fifteen, the fourragère croix de guerre; five, the médaille militaire; three, the fourragère médaille militaire; twelve, the Legion d' Honneur; and ten, the French sanitary decoration. Two were cited in the orders of French G. H. Q., four in the French divisional orders; and two in the French unit orders. In the United States army, fourteen received the distinguished service cross and ten the distinguished service medal, while twenty-three were cited in orders of general headquarters; seven, in general army orders; forty-two, in divisional orders; six, in unit orders; and three in

¹ For the names of the alumni embraced in the lists of citations and decorations that follow, the reader is referred to the Alumni Bulletin for 1922, and also to the monograph on the *University of Virginia in the World War*, prepared by John S. Patton. Our space is too limited to allow us to insert this very voluminous roster.

naval orders. Four were awarded the naval cross.

In the English service, two alumni received the distinguished service order and five the military cross, while five also were cited in general orders. One was awarded the Order of St. Michael and St. George. In the Italian service, four received the war cross; one the Order of the Crown of Italy; and one the distinguished service medal. The Belgian decorations granted were the Order of Leopold of Belgium to six, and the Distinguished Flying Cross of Flanders to one. One alumnus received the Grand Commander Order of Avis, a Portuguese decoration; one the Order of St. Anna, a Serbian; and one, the Medal of Military Merit, a Grecian. One was also decorated as Chevalier of the Order of the Saviour.

LXIII. *The World War — James R. McConnell*

The spirit which animates the participants in a war cannot be adequately presented by simply offering a plain statement of crosses won, or rank attained, or numbers engaged. We must closely scrutinize the careers of individual soldiers if we wish to get a correct impression of the courage, the fortitude, the staunchness, the patriotism of the mass.

Was the conflict on the European theatre, in which the alumni of the University of Virginia took part, more appealing to our sympathies, or more compelling in its claims to spiritual consideration, than that earlier struggle in which freedom, country, and hearthstone were the sacred objects that all those youthful paladins and martyrs described by us in a previous volume, sought to protect and preserve? The World War,—in an indirect sense at least,—was also a war of defense, al-

though on a far vaster scale; but it did not have for the South the intimacy and poignancy of those four years in which the attack was aimed against the very threshold, the very roof-tree, of every Southern home, as well as against the general principles upon which every Southern community rested. In this contest, the retention of everything economic or political, personal or civic, then existing, was at stake. The fight was upon the native soil, and often under the very eaves of the home. The sound of the guns echoed through every forest, across every harvest-field, over the roofs of every village. It was everywhere; and it never ceased until the South, having exhausted her last resource, lay completely prostrate.

In reality, the resistance to the German onrush and the resistance to the Federal invasion, by the young alumni of the University of Virginia, in their respective generations, had much in common; but much more yet that was essentially different. The personal issue was less piercing in the former case than in the latter; indeed, the issue for the young soldiers in the World War was an impersonal one; and, for this reason, their participation in that conflict assumed an almost purely spiritual aspect. It was not in defense of their own country so much that they were fighting as for the salvation of mankind as a whole. It was as if some great crusade had drawn these young men to the other side of the world,—just as the followers of Godfrey de Bouillon had been drawn to Palestine,—in order to press forward a cause which had lost entirely its limitation to one land and to one people, and been merged in a cause that reached out to all lands and to all peoples.

It was this spiritual point of view,—which was the logical result of the character of the World War,—that

has given such a sublimated meaning to the deaths of the young alumni of the University who perished in the course of that conflict. It is only possible to describe the careers of a few of these youthful heroes in the contracted space at our disposal. We shall consider as our first representative of them all, the youthful warrior who was the earliest of the alumni to die, and who, in his unselfish consecration, sunny temper, unfailing courage, and love of daring adventure, may, like the others whom we shall name in later chapters, be rightly regarded as the epitome of all his glorious young comrades.

James R. McConnell, although of Carolinian blood, was a native of Chicago. His home there was situated within a few doors of the home of one of the earliest pioneers in aviation, who was in the habit of studying the wings and flight of birds, and testing the results of his observations with primitive machines in a vacant lot just under the boy's window. It was, perhaps, the recollection of these spectacles which impelled McConnell to become the founder of an aero club after his admission to the University of Virginia, in 1907. While here, he was the chief editor of *Corks and Curls*, and was also crowned, amid florid ceremonies, the King of the Hot Feet. It was the memory of this royal honor that led him to paint a red foot on the side of his plane in France. On one occasion, finding on the streets of Charlottesville an Italian, who was accompanied by a performing bear, he brought the two to the precincts, and endeavored to arrange a wrestling match between bruin and a member of his fraternity, who weighed two hundred pounds. He purchased a pair of bagpipes, and employed a Scotchman to teach him the art of playing on that instrument. It happened that a soirée was held in Dawson's Row after one of the examinations in law. McConnell, enter-

ing the room at midnight, bagpipes in hand and dressed in Highland kilts, began at once marching up and down, blowing the droning pipes with all his vigor the while, until, finally, like another Pied Piper, he drew the whole crowd behind him out of doors; and they continued to follow the buzzing strains until the grounds of the University had been traversed, amid a mighty hullabaloo of music, shrieks, catcalls, and yells. The house of his fraternity was known as The Castle; and here he rarely failed to give a tea to his friends in the afternoon.

In the autumn of 1914, he offered his services to the Allies,—one of the very first Americans to volunteer. At this time, he was engaged in business in North Carolina. “One day in January, 1915,” says a friend, “I saw Jim McConnell in front of the court-house at Carthage (N. C.). ‘Well,’ said he, ‘I am all fixed up, and am leaving on Wednesday.’ ‘Where for?’ I asked. ‘I’ve got a job to drive an ambulance in France,’ was his quiet reply.” In a letter to another friend, written in the following April, he remarked, “I am sitting in a little café in Nancy, sipping a glass of beer. Tomorrow, I am going to the front with our squad and twelve ambulances. After working in Paris for two very interesting and instructive months, I got out in an old and picked squad,—the first really to go to the front. We are now a part of the army to all intents, and a French sergeant is attached to us. I am having a glorious experience.” Not long before leaving the capital on this occasion, he had seen the first Zeppelin pass high above the roofs. “It glowed,” he said, “like a silver whale against the night sky. A searchlight caught it. Suddenly, great balls of fire began to hurtle up towards her, the fusee shells rising from the Trocadero like great Roman candles touched off.”

While McConnell was stationed at the front with the ambulance squad, the Germans began bombarding a railway not far from his position. "There was a sickening whistle," he wrote in description of the scene, "as the shell hurtled toward us, and then the detonation! After only two shells had come in, there was a call for ambulances. The French drivers would not go out. Two of us volunteered. The crowd watched us from the tower of an old castle as we descended the hill. I got my car across the sidings, but could not reach the main line of the railway. A shell whizzed through the air and planked down back of me. I went into the house for the wounded. Another shell came, and the men surrounding the poor fellow, who was lying in blood on a mattress, huddled against the wall. Another shell landed in front of my car, but did not go off. We ran down between the tracks, turned, and followed back on the other side of the house, where I got my man. It was quite exciting."

After this episode, McConnell was constantly under fire, and at Pont-a-Mousson was awarded the *croix de guerre* for conspicuous bravery.

But the life of the ambulance driver did not satisfy the cravings of those characteristics which he is said to have possessed even as a student; namely, "hatred of the humdrum, an abhorrence of the commonplace, and a passion for the picturesque." It was to the newest method of fighting that his aspiring, dare-devil spirit involuntarily turned,—he determined, without hesitation, to train for the aviation corps. It was in this branch of service that he could most certainly anticipate hand-to-hand combat, which he longed for as the quickest means of winning personal distinction for himself. But below this thirst for adventure there lay a profound sympathy

for France, and a burning desire to advance her cause. "I was convinced," he said, "that the United States ought to aid in the struggle against Germany. It was, therefore, plainly up to me to do more than drive an ambulance. The more I saw of the splendor of the fight which the French were making, the more I began to feel like an *embusque*, or what the British call a slacker; so I made up my mind to go into aviation."

After the required course of training, he entered the American Escadrille, which ultimately assumed the name of the Lafayette, as the Administration at Washington protested against the use of the word "American." Its insignia was the head of a Sioux Indian in full war paint, whilst its uniform was cut and colored like a diver's suit. Some of the members of the Escadrille,—for instance, Chouteau Johnson, of New York, Laurence Rumsey, of Buffalo, Clyde Balsley, of El Paso,—substituted for khaki the horizon blue uniform of the French flying corps. The biplane in use was the Nieuport, which was the smallest, the trimmest, the fastest rising, the fastest moving machine in the French service. It could fly at the rate of one hundred and ten miles an hour. The occupant could fire his machine gun with one hand, while, with the other hand and his feet, he could operate the plane. The Nieuport pilots were always spoken of by the French as the "aces of the air." They were not required to answer roll-calls; and each had, at his command, two mechanics and one orderly.

The Lafayette Escadrille was sent first to Luxeuil, where a large British contingent was stationed. In the beginning, they were received with coldness; but this very soon thawed into a whole-hearted comradeship. "We didn't know what you Yanks would be like," said one of the Englishmen afterwards. "We thought you might

be snubbing us on account of your being volunteers, but I'll swear you are a bloody human lot." The Alsace sector, where the Escadrille were now patrolling, was infested with German planes engaged in reconnaissances, which very often brought them above the Allied lines. It was the duty of the Escadrille to shoot down these observers if possible, or at least, to prevent their passing over the heads of the Allied troops. "Having obtained the proper position," said McConnell, in describing his own experience, "one turns down or up, whichever the case may be, and when within fifty yards, opens up with a machine-gun. As one is passing at a terrific rate, there is no time for many shots, so, unless wounded, or one's machine is injured, one tries it again and again, until there is nothing doing, or the other fellow drops. The planes also acted as torpedo boats in convoying bombardment machinery."

In his first excursion, McConnell seated himself in his plane at six o'clock in the morning. As it floated upward and away between the boundless heavens above and the vast plain below, the diminutive Nieuport gradually dwindled to the size of a gadfly. The air soon became murky, and the clouds began rolling up, and in a short time, his companions' machines were hidden from his view. Rising to a height of seven thousand feet,—a position far above the sea of vapor,—he discovered the peaks of the Alps glittering in the distance beneath the rays of the sun, like a row of gigantic icebergs adrift. Gradually, the masses of mist below broke up into great wreaths, leaving crevasses, through which could be descried the chequered lowlands spreading eastward to the banks of the ribbon-like Rhine. And then one by one,—first as mere specks against the sky,—the machines of his comrades came in sight. "Suddenly," said he, "two

balls of black smoke appeared close to one of them, and with the same disconcerting abruptness, similar balls began to dot the sky above, below, and on all sides of us. We were being shot at with shrapnel. The roar of my engine drowned the noise of the explosions. Strangely enough, my feelings were wholly impersonal. It was bitterly cold, and even in my fur-lined combination, I was shivering. Looking downward, I saw what I, at first, took for a round shimmering sheet of water. It was simply the effect of the sunlight on the congealing fog."

From Luxeuil, the Escadrille was ordered to Verdun. There, every sign pointed to their nearness to a mighty battle, for now plainly visible were unending convoys of motor-trucks, great streams of troops, and fleets of ambulances. It was the duty of the pilots of the Nieuports to guard the observation and range-finding machines, which were always hovering above the line of trenches, like flocks of white gulls. "Sailing high above these machines," said McConnell, "we felt like an old hen protecting her chickens." As the enemy's bombardment of the forts went on, shells appeared fairly to rain upon the plain; a smoky pall soon settled over that part where the firing was hottest; and from its folds enormous projectiles would burst out, and as they flew by the planes, the air would seem to rock like the waters of a tumultuous sea. Again and again, the Nieuports would dart upon their aerial opponents far behind the hostile lines. In one of these impulsive raids, McConnell drove at four machines in succession, and his own Nieuport, after the last combat was ended, was perforated like a sieve. It had been shot through and through with machine-gun bullets. He himself had been severely hit in the head; but so soon as his wound had been bandaged, he mounted into the air again and continued to fly and to fight.

From these devastated scenes in Eastern France, the Escadrille was withdrawn to the banks of the Somme. At Verdun, the explosions of the guns far below had been drowned by the noise of the engines, but the peals of the artillery in the new position reached the ears of the pilots in a heavy volume. "From the field," said McConnell, afterwards, "we could see the line of sausage-shaped observation balloons, which delineated the front, and beyond them, the high flying airplanes, darting like swallows in the shrapnel puffs of anti-aircraft fire. The roar of motors that were being tested was punctuated by the staccato barking of machine-guns; and at intervals, the hollow whistling sound of a fast plane diving to earth was added to the symphony of war notes."

The day before McConnell was killed, he had a narrow escape from death. A band of American aviators, who were members of the Lafayette Escadrille, flew, on that occasion, to a distance of twenty-six miles behind the hostile lines. The enemy were now in slow retreat. The Nieuports were moving on a low altitude, and the German machine-guns took advantage of this fact to open fire on the fleet. "I could see the luminous bullets," said McConnell, on his return to headquarters, "passing me like a jet of water sparkling in the sunlight." Two German planes, which had approached him, had been able to signal to their aircraft batteries below, the exact range of his machine, and then had darted away out of danger; but by skilful manoeuvring, he succeeded in escaping from the outburst of the shrapnel. This fighting occurred in the vicinity of Ham.

On the fatal day in March (1917), having received orders to protect the observation-machines flying over the Allies' advancing troops, McConnell, with two comrades, each in a separate Nieuport, mounted up into the air; but

one of the planes, having become disabled, soon dropped behind. McConnell and Genet flew on, and up to ten o'clock, continued their reconnoissance by circling above the region of Ham. At that hour, McConnell suddenly drove his machine straight for St. Quentin. Genet followed, but at a greater height. While they were moving backwards and forwards, behind the hostile lines in that vicinity, two German aeroplanes, one ahead of the other, and both high above the two Americans, flew slowly forward, like two great condors, with the apparent intention of diving abruptly upon their opponents. Genet ascended in order to secure a position of advantage over the nearest of these machines, and as he did so, the clouds shut out the now distant plane of McConnell. In the meanwhile, his own immediate foe had rushed at Genet, and fired a rapid succession of shots, one of which struck him in the cheek, and the other broke his stanchion. But in spite of this crippled condition, he was able to glide down safely to the ground.

McConnell was not again seen alive; but the duel in which he was killed had been witnessed by a group of French cavalry patrolling far below. The enemy, having successfully manoeuvred to get on either side of him, finally riddled his body and machine with bullets. A Nieuport stamped with his number was afterwards found in the environs of a little village from which the Germans had just retired. The mangled body was hardly recognizable, and the plane itself had been completely smashed. McConnell was buried on the spot where his remains were discovered. One who visited that spot a few months later, wrote, "We stopped at a little mound beside the way. At the foot was his battered machine-gun, while, on either side, were pieces of his aeroplane, including a blade from the propeller. For-

get-me-nots and other fresh flowers were blooming, and American and French flags were waving, on the wooden cross that marks the grave. There is no fear that the site will be disturbed. The place is sacred, for that is a hero's grave."

There was found among McConnell's effects a letter which had been written by him in anticipation of just such a fate as overtook him. "Good luck to the rest of you," was its concluding message to his comrades, "Vive la France." "My death," he added, "is of no importance. Make it as easy as possible for yourselves." In a graphic little volume which recorded his recollections of "flying for France," he made but one reference to this sombre subject. "At the close of a day," the sentences ran, "when the aviators began to go to bed, a few would be inclined to stay behind. Then the talk became more personal and more sincere. Only on such intimate occasions, I think, have I ever heard death discussed. Certainly we were not indifferent to it." When his mother, broken in health, urged him to obtain his release from the French army, he replied, "If I knew I was to be killed within a minute, and I was absolutely free to leave untouched, I would not do so." Such was the dauntless spirit which animated the soul of this youthful hero! What was death to such a man as this but another stirring adventure to be faced with perfect serenity, and, perhaps, even with an emotion of positive joy? Of not one enrolled in that gallant company could it be more truly said than of him, that

"All he had he gave

"To save mankind; himself he scorned to save."

In September, 1917, the National Government appropriated two cannon, with carriages and balls, as an

addition to the monument to McConnell which had been erected in Carthage, N. C., where he had lived before departing for France. But a far more original and imposing memorial was the statue by Gutzon Borglum, which, in 1919, was raised on the grounds of the University of Virginia. This is said to have been the first endeavor of a sculptor to poise the flying warrior at the aerial height at which all his victories were won, and where, only too often, like this intrepid young soldier, he perished.¹

LXIV. *The World War — Youthful Martyrs*

Among the other alumni who were killed in the World War, it is difficult to choose without appearing to be invidiously partial; but the space at our disposal will not allow of our paying them all the encomium which they all deserve. A tribute that will embrace the entire number must be left to some future historian, who shall write a special volume descriptive, like Johnson's *Confederate Memorial*, of every one who perished in the service. It is only possible for us here to refer briefly to a few who seem to us, in spirit and action, to represent very faithfully the noble disposition which, under all circumstances, they and their youthful comrades displayed in the great cause for which they sacrificed their lives.

William Alexander Fleet was a descendant of the rebel, Sir Thomas Wyatt, who marshalled a Protestant army against Bloody Queen Mary, and also the nephew of another rebel, so called, James Alexander Seddon, the Confederate Secretary of War. His ancestry of his own name went back to Captain Henry Fleet, who played an adventurous part in the history of Jamestown.

¹ It was due to the suggestion of President Alderman, and the generosity of W. W. Fuller and John B. Cobb, that this statue was erected.

In 1904, he was chosen as a Rhodes Scholar,— the first to be appointed to that position from Virginia. "He was our first real Rhodes Scholar," said the head of Magdalen College after his death. "No man was more generally known or liked in his generation. America could have had no better representative to start her traditions here. He both gave and received in the richest measure."

On his return to America, Fleet became at first a preceptor at Princeton, and afterwards, an officer of the Culver Military Academy. When he saw England plunging deeper and deeper into the World War, he exhibited an almost passionate desire to prove his gratitude for all the intellectual and social advantages which he had enjoyed during his stay at Oxford, by assisting that country in some way, however small. His original plan was to join the British Red Cross; but on arriving in England, he found that all his college-mates were in the army proper, and he promptly decided to go to them.

"They gave me such a good time at Oxford," he wrote, in explanation of his action, "and were such good fellows, that, now that they are fighting and dying, I must fight with them." He was commissioned a second lieutenant in the Grenadier Guards in January, 1917, and in the following August arrived in France with his regiment, which almost at once began to take part in the desperate battles then being fought in Flanders. He was gassed at Langemarck in September. After recovering, he returned to his place in his regiment, participated in the continuous encounters of the spring of 1918, and in the end, perished near Arras, when a German bomb fell upon his tent, at the moment occupied by four other officers and himself. Only a few months be-

fore this fatal event, he had married the daughter of Sir Charles Lyall.

"He always did his duty most loyally, and with the most conscientious care," testified Lord Gort, his commander, after his death. "Anything I asked him to do was accomplished by him with a total disregard to his own personal safety; and he always set a most magnificent example to us all." "He has fallen with his British comrades," said his old headmaster at Oxford, "and I feel sure, that, notwithstanding all his hearty enjoyment of life and the great happiness of his marriage, could he have chosen again, he would never have done or wished otherwise." And his old instructor at the Culver Military Academy said, "We who knew and loved him, remember him not for his fine mental and physical endowment. Rather, we recall his unusual qualities of heart, his unselfish, clean, and wholesome life. The call of war has been answered by some from ambition, and by some from inborn love of change or of conflict. To Captain Fleet, the call of war was the call of duty. His interests were all of peace, the peace of sustained effort. The three words, peace, service, sacrifice, now seem to describe the man we have known and loved."

The name of William Alexander Fleet enjoys the noble distinction that it is inscribed upon the memorial tablets which shine upon the walls of three famous and widely separated seats of learning: Oxford, Princeton, and the University of Virginia. He was one of the two hundred and five members of Magdalen College who perished in the World War, and the legend engraved above the roll of their glorious names, in one of the most beautiful buildings in the world, has a poignantly pathetic meaning as bearing upon his unselfish motives

in entering the British army: "Greater love hath no man than this: that a man lay down his life for his friends."

Vivian Slaughter was sprung directly from fighting stock,—three of his ancestors of his own name, a father, son, and grandson, participated in the Battle of Great Bridge, of the Revolution. His grandfather served as surgeon in all the encounters that swayed backwards and forwards along the banks of the Rapidan during the War of Secession, while his father was one of seven brothers who were marshalled in the Confederate armies. That father had been sent off to school to remove him from the temptation of running away to join the Confederate ranks; but this turned out to be ineffective,—he became a member of the Orange Artillery, and as an officer fought in every campaign from the Peninsular to Early's dash down the Valley.

Even as a child, Vivian Slaughter was keenly interested in books. There was one sentence in *Pilgrim's Progress* which he was often heard to repeat, drawn to do so, perhaps, under the influence of the foreshadowed fate which was to overtake him, as it has overtaken so many other soldiers, "And so he passed over the river, and all the trumpets sounded for him on the other side." "These early years," says one who knew him then, "were full of the glorious visions of a happy childhood, with its joyous twilight hours, when stories were told in the starlight and firelight of home."

Deciding to adopt the calling of medicine, Slaughter, after leaving the University of Virginia, spent several years in Vienna and Berlin. He returned home in 1914; but instead of pursuing his profession, he was so much wrought up by his sympathy for the Servians that he decided to go back to Europe and join the American Red Cross, as the only practical means in his power of

giving assistance. He sailed in January, 1915, and after passing twelve months in the Balkans, he came to the same conclusion as McConnell in the like situation; namely, that his eagerness to aid the Allied Cause would be better satisfied by a share in actual warfare. In July, 1916, he was gazetted as a second lieutenant in the Twentieth London Regiment, which apparently, at that time, was posted in Saloniki. He accompanied this regiment first to Egypt, and then to France, and was a participant in every one of the numerous actions in which that gallant force was engaged in these different regions.

He was about to resign and enter the American army, which was now encamped in Europe, when he was killed. His battalion had been held up, for a short while, near Marconing by a nest of German machine guns. At the head of two platoons, he hurried forward to sweep away the obstruction and fell at the moment of success. The history of this last scene confirms the truth of the tribute which his commander paid to his memory: "Though perfectly unassuming, whatever job was given him to do was always done; and he was so much beloved by his men that they would follow him anywhere." His body found its last repose in the British cemetery at Grande Rapide, where it lies surrounded by the bodies of his brave English comrades, who perished in the same great series of battles.

Robert H. Wood, Jr., of Charlottesville, had made up his mind to matriculate as a medical student at the University of Virginia; but just so soon as the first military training began, he apparently had no thought, as was said of him at the time, "but to put his whole life at the disposal of his country." He promptly reported at Fort Meyer, but failed to be admitted because his age would be still short of his majority in the year when he

would be expected to graduate. Owing to a weakness in his arm,—resulting from a fracture received during a game of baseball,—and also to some infirmity of the hip, he was turned down, when, on two occasions, he volunteered to serve in the University of Virginia contingent. His father suggested that, perhaps, the Government would prefer him to continue his medical studies as a preparation for the duties of the Medical Corps in the future; but his only reply to this was, “No, I am determined to get in now.”

Very soon afterwards he enlisted; and having been ordered to the Georgia Technological School at Atlanta, he pursued the work of his classes there so ardently and so successfully that he graduated as one of the five honor men who were permitted to complete the special course in the United States, France, or Italy, just as they should elect. He decided in favor of France. The only complaint which he was heard to make of the training which he received there was that it dragged on too slowly to satisfy his eager temper. He aspired to enter the aviation corps, and was harassed by the thought that the weakness of his hip might stand in the way of his appointment. But he obtained his commission in May, 1918, and was then licensed as a pilot in the observation corps. “He was not one of those,” wrote a close comrade after his death, “who joined the army merely to wear a uniform, or to escape the draft. He came in for the honor of his home. The United States had been outraged. His memory will be an ideal which we will strive to reach, and which will bind us more firmly together for the common purpose, which is to inflict such a blow on the demon who started this reign of suffering as will always prevent its recurring.”

Farrell D. Minor, Jr., also was a scion of an honor-

able family long settled in Albemarle county, though his parents resided in Texas. He was a graduate of the University Law School, and while a member of that school had won the reputation of being a model student, not only in his power of successful application, but also in the high principles which always governed his conduct. He obtained his commission as second lieutenant at the earliest moment possible after the United States entered the War. "What would you have done," he was asked, "had you failed to pass the examination?" "I would have enlisted at once as a private," was the reply.

He volunteered to join the famous Rainbow Division, then awaiting embarkation at Camp Mills; it was with this division that he served in France; and he was with it when the Germans made their last desperate offensive east of Rheims at midnight of July 4, 1918. His platoon participated, three weeks later, along with his battalion and regiment, in the great encounter at Red Cross Farm, which will go down in history as one of the most glorious, and not the least sanguinary, in the second Battle of the Marne. This regiment came out of that awful conflict with only five hundred and eighty-five effective men in an original enrolment of three thousand; nine officers had been killed outright, and forty wounded; and one half of his own company had perished in a shorter interval than forty minutes. He himself fell. A corporal who saw him rigidly straighten himself up as if hit by a bullet, and then suddenly collapse, ran forward to assist him. "Don't worry about me," was the reply of the stricken soldier to the eager offer of help. "Go and do the best you can with the men." The advance which he had been heading had been over an open wheat field; and there had been no support from the artillery because the heavy rains had made the terrain im-

passable. But the order had been given that the ground was to be occupied at all costs, and occupied it was.

Minor had still strength enough to allow of his removal to the hospital. While lying desperately wounded, he treated his attendants with such unfailing consideration that it seems as if they, and not he, were entitled to special solicitude and service. "He was surely one of the finest men here," remarked one of these attendants after his death. "I was on night duty in his ward, and he was one of the kind that would always say, when he asked for anything, 'When you have the time.' All the patients who could walk came to his side more than once through the day to inquire, and those who could not, never failed to ask after him or call to him a pleasant greeting." "When the time comes to go on the line," he had written his parents after his arrival in France, "I will be quite satisfied, and you can rest assured that I will do my best and give to the limit." "And he did live up to the confidence that we had in him," said his stricken but justly proud father after his death. "His parents rest in the confident assurance that not on the line only, but in the camp, on the march, in the trenches, in No Man's Land, in the hospital, everywhere, he did his best, and gave to the limit."

Randolph Mason, the son of a Confederate veteran, was attached to the 148th Machine Gun Battalion as second lieutenant. After his arrival in France, he was offered an official position that would have withdrawn him entirely from exposure to fire. "No," said he emphatically, in declining; "no, I have come here for active service." In his first engagement, he exhibited such perfect equanimity that his captain declared that his bearing had been, not that of a raw soldier, but of one already seasoned by a long experience of danger. It



was affirmed of him that, by his cheerfulness and self-possession, he held his men steady in the most perilous situations. From July 7 to July 23, he took part in the terrific conflict in the Bois de Belleau. During three days of this interval, his platoon was cut off altogether from food and water, and were unable to sleep, in consequence of the unbroken bombardment. All this while, he, at the head of his soldiers, was reconnoitering from time to time in the face of the fire, and was constantly leading out volunteers to pick up the wounded. Death overtook him when he had gone forward alone to observe the enemy's movements. "I found him shortly afterwards," said his captain, "and I folded his hands and laid him out for his long rest." He was buried near the spot where he was killed, which was situated in a beautiful grove overlooking the ground that he and his men had assisted in capturing only a few hours before. Over his grave, his platoon, pausing in the fight, placed a wooden cross, rudely put together, and then sadly returned to their guns. Said one of these comrades after his death, "His cheerfulness was the salvation of us all, for even the strongest of us was breaking under the strain." And another said, "I do not think a native son of France could have been more willing to die for her than he was. He loved her and her people almost as much as he did his native soil; and often I have heard him remark that no man can have a better epitaph than 'Mort pour la patrie.' He has made the supreme sacrifice, and we who knew him in France know that he was proud and happy to make it. We who are left are the better for having known him. A true soldier and a splendid officer, he died a soldier's death."

"God bless you," he wrote his father. "Pray for me to be a good soldier in this good cause." That prayer

was heard in the chancellery of Heaven. The parent blood that had confronted the hosts of the North, with unfaltering courage and staunchness, did not fail when, in Randolph Mason, in the next generation, it was called upon to aid in resisting the invasion of another soil, which was as dear to him as the one which his father had defended. The Southern soldier of the War of Secession had blossomed out into the soldier of the War of all Mankind.

LXV. *The World War — Youthful Martyrs, continued*

It was not the lot of all who gave up their lives for their country and mankind, to die on the field of action, or even in a foreign land, but the final sacrifice of those who perished in the course of their training under their native skies is not the less worthy of being eternally cherished by their alma mater. Here too we have only space to bring forward the names of a few who, in their character and conduct, appear to us to have reflected faithfully the spirit of all those youthful soldiers, who, before passing away, did their full duty, but were not destined to hear the guns roar beyond the Atlantic.

Victor Sharp Metcalf, son of Professor John Calvin Metcalf, of the University of Virginia, was one of those gallant Americans, who, although they failed, from no fault of their own, to join the ranks in Flanders or the Argonne, just as truly offered up their lives for their country's benefit as if they too had been struck down by bullet or shell. All the years of his pathetically short career were passed in an academic atmosphere,— he was born on a college campus, and resided within or near college precincts almost to the close of his existence. His heritage was a heritage of literary culture; he never knew the time when he was not surrounded by books;

books even in his early youth were his most entertaining friends; but this did not dull the edge of his taste for sports in the open air. Aside from athletics, the form of college activity which pleased him most keenly was the amateur stage. Young as he was at the hour of his death, he had had the opportunity to see and listen to the most famous American and European actors in classic and modern plays, and was familiar with all the masterpieces of dramatic literature. In his own histrionic performances, it was noticed that his preference leaned to comedy; and his natural gayety, his sense of humor, and his quick wit, enabled him to interpret, with peculiar fidelity, the spirit of mirthful scenes in many rôles. Dramatic composition, verse-making, and short story-writing were the natural outlet for the principal bent of his literary powers.

The World War altered the current of his thought and purpose. From the hour that the United States entered the conflict, his mind returned again and again, with the force of an instinctive impulse, to the question of his own duty; and he volunteered so soon as he had finished the academic tasks which had been set for him. "Into this new life," said one who had known him from childhood, "he threw himself with his accustomed dash and energy. Then, with tragic suddenness, came the fateful darkened days of disease. There was a short, brave struggle, and his bright dreams were ended. But the fine spirit which animated him, and others like him, in their country's service, does not perish with their dreams. If his practical achievement was small, his spiritual accomplishment was great. The fulfilment of a worthy purpose, which death temporarily interrupts, must be credited eternally to the aspiring soul. He lived gladly, willed greatly, and aspired much. The promise

of the dawn was fulfilled in the crowning glory of his brief day."

In the autumn of 1915, John Dunn, Jr. of Richmond, entered the University of Virginia, and here, during his first year, his hours were devoted equally to study and outdoor pastimes. The shadow of the war fell more heavily over his second session, diverting his thoughts, and the thoughts of his comrades, with ever growing seriousness, to the great conflagration that was then destroying Europe. The following summer (1917), when he was still a mere youth in years, found his mind in a state of increasing uncertainty as to what course duty called upon him to adopt,—he became more and more abstracted in his bearing, more and more restless in his movements. But by the time that the month of January, 1918, arrived, he had made up his mind to enter the war just as soon as it was practical for him to do so. "I wish to be over there when spring breaks, in the crush of the last drive," he wrote his parents.

He was keen to be enrolled in the aviation service, but the American branch was now overcrowded, and the facilities for instruction and practice were limited. It would be necessary to wait, during several months, for the reception of an order to begin; and this fact prompted him to solicit admission to the Royal Training Corps stationed at Toronto, a city which he knew well through his summer travels. "It is the same cause as ours," he said, "and England needs men." "Canada has been combed for fliers," he wrote after his enlistment, "and is prepared to turn them out as rapidly as they can be trained. I made no mistake when I came here." The restless desire which had so harassed his spirit seemed at last to be soothed. His longing was gratified, now that the path was clear of all obstruction.

“ Since the question has been settled for me in spite of the chasing around that I have done,” he wrote to his parents, “ a calm has fallen over my real self that has not been mine for many a month.” He was still within two years of his majority,— a youth of nineteen only,— when he entered the British service. There was nothing now lacking to complete his happiness. “ I sleep as soundly in my pine board bunk as I ever did in the four poster at home,” he gayly tells his mother; “ for the first time in four years, I now feel properly attired.”

The young soldier passed the first three weeks in an intensive drill, and was then ordered to Camp Borden for lessons in wireless and gunnery; and another week there found him fully versed in the details of a course which usually required a month to master. At the end of a fortnight, he was registered in the University of Toronto as a student of military aeronautics. By this time, he had acquired so much knowledge of his new vocation, and had shown the possession of so many fine personal qualities, that, young as he was, he was put in command of a squad of ten men. It was while he was thus employed, and daily anticipating an order for his transfer to active service in France, that he was stricken with scarlet fever and died. Only a few weeks before he had celebrated his twentieth birthday. He was buried within the precincts of Old Blandford Church at Petersburg, his body wrapped in the folds of the American and British flags.

In the far Muskaka, on the soil of Canada,— where he had passed so many summers, happy in the diversions of canoeing, and fishing, and hunting,— the people of the little community, who had watched him spring up to manhood, placed a window in the village church in his

memory; and on its surface shone the countenance and the figure of a youthful warrior.

Adair Pleasants Archer could trace his ancestry directly back to Pocahontas, and also to General Adair, one of the heroic pioneers of the dark and bloody ground of Kentucky, and afterwards a governor and senator of that State, and a distinguished officer in numerous wars.

Eager as young Archer was to adopt, as his permanent vocation, some branch of the fine arts,—for which and literature he had shown an extraordinary aptitude from youth,—yet so soon as the black shadow of war began to drift across his country, he enlisted in the Officers' Reserve Corps. "Not to have done so," he wrote at the time, "would have been to ally myself with those hated pacifists." By the middle of August, 1917, he was stationed at Camp Lee. Even here, under circumstances apparently so hostile, his artistic and literary bent came to the surface in a highly characteristic way,—he was appointed the editor of the *Trench and Camp*; and was detailed to establish a community theatre, which he had been first to suggest. The play of *Henry the Fifth*, substantially curtailed, was the first one to be performed; and in the course of this, he was not only the stage manager, but also the personifier of the king. "Where can I find words fitly to describe that gallant figure in the steel gray armor?" says one who saw him on that occasion, "the brilliant face showing in the open oval of his head of mail; the color and pose as he went through the act; the ardent ringing voice, so convincing you that this was Henry as the Master might have dreamed him."

Temporarily relieved of his duties at Camp Lee, in consequence of ill health, he returned to his home in

Richmond, and while there, delivered a series of thoughtful lectures on the drama, and on the production of plays; and he also formed a small theatre league composed of the local artists, musicians, teachers, and scholars. This was in the spring of 1918. "It was a pleasure to attend those weekly meetings," says a member. "Adair was the youngest person present, but he dominated all,—not obtrusively or consciously, but through the sheer force of individuality." "He not only dominated the student group," said another, "but he took the chief hand with the actors." While engaged in the preparation of a play for a public performance by the league, he had been writing a scenario and musical arrangement for a ballet, which was afterwards given in Boston.

Returning to Camp Lee, after an interval spent at Camp Devens, he soon won the reputation of being the most respected member of his company. His surviving comrades have many moving stories to tell of his gay temper, debonair bearing, and energetic spirit, during these last crowded months. He was now serving as a sergeant with a development battalion; his duties were on a level with those of a second lieutenant and consisted of drilling the men and lecturing to them; but while faithfully engaged in these somewhat monotonous tasks, he was put in charge of two organizations that were to be employed in making experiments in recreation. Before he could begin this new work, so congenial to his tastes, or receive the promotion which his poor physical health had deferred so long, he was carried off in the terrible epidemic of influenza which was then prevailing.

Thus passed away a youthful genius, who, had he lived to full maturity, would have reflected the distinction of an accomplished writer and composer on his alma mater.

Artist, scholar, soldier,— he stands out as the most poetical figure in the shining ranks of those alumni of the University of Virginia who laid down their lives for the benefit of mankind in the World War. Percy Mackaye dedicated a poem to his memory, and Amelie Rives wrote a threnody in his honor; and thus he died deeply lamented by those who, by kindred sympathies and talents, were best able to gauge the character and extent of his powers, and estimate the loss inflicted upon art and literature by his untimely death.

LXVI. *Conclusion*

The history of the University of Virginia during the first one hundred years of its existence is now finished. The story, in all its multitudinous aspects, has been told. To some it may appear that the narrative has traversed too wide a field and harvested too abundant a mass of detail; but, in opposition to this impression, it should be remembered that the record of the institution has not been viewed by us as though it were simply the record of a seat of learning standing by itself, and, therefore, to be studied without regard to its larger relations beyond its own precincts. Rather, we have always borne in mind that the University of Virginia, in its remote past and in its middle past alike, and in the living present also, has been a mirror of the governing characteristics of the Southern people, whether moral or intellectual, social or political. We have only to gaze steadfastly and discriminatingly at the picture lurking in that mirror to discover there the faithful reflection, in general outline, of the history of the Southern States,— that illustrious group of commonwealths, which, in their annals, offer events more glorious and more tragic, and qualities more highly individualized, than are to be observed in the

annals of any other part of the Union. If we had no other means of gauging the spirit of those States, and the general conditions, which, from generation to generation, have prevailed within their borders, we would not be entirely lacking in light upon these subjects so long as we possessed the story of the University of Virginia. The gay, the impulsive, the chivalric, the sterner side of the Southern temperament; the high sense of honor; the uncalculating patriotism; the readiness for self-sacrifice; the fine devotion to ideals; the esteem for intellectual ability; the admiration for oratory; the respect for public service; the appreciation of classic literature; the love of personal freedom; the inborn conservatism; the will to overcome all obstacles, if necessary,—there is not one of these traits of the Southern people, as a whole, that is not perceptible in the history of this seat of learning as it passes through the nine great periods of its career during these first one hundred years.

Here was a University, which, up to a recent date, could only count its students by the hundred, and the members of its Faculty by the dozen,—why was it so representative of that great region known as the South? Because it was the epitome, the microcosm, of all those communities, which have always been so homogeneous in their white population, so unified in their economic interests, and so identical in their social, moral, and intellectual characteristics. The history of the University of Virginia reminds us of that Genevan toy of magnifying oval glass which, though one can hold it in the hollow of the right hand, contains, at its centre, a reproduction in miniature of a great city, or even of the map of an entire kingdom. There is no limit to the details encompassed within those bounds, although too small apparently to give space for the tip of the little finger. And

so with this oval glass of Jefferson's creation. Look into its depths, and there you will find, not simply the story of a seat of classical and scientific culture, but the story of a whole people, who have stamped their qualities upon the history of the foremost of modern republics. The picture at the heart of this scholastic framework seems to reach out until it takes in millions of individuals and thousands of square miles. The history of the University of Virginia expands until it embraces the history of the South; and the history of the South contracts until it merges in the history of the University of Virginia.

The great power for good which the University of Virginia has exercised, during these first one hundred years, is too subtle, too far spread, and too voluminous, to be gauged to the farthest limits. A partial roster of its eminent alumni will give at least an approximate impression of the scope of its influence,—one President of the United States; six members of the Federal Cabinet; five of the Confederate; nine ministers and ambassadors to foreign courts; two justices of the United States Supreme Bench; thirteen members of the Federal circuit and district benches; twenty chief-justices of the State supreme courts; seventy-nine associate justices of these courts; thirty-four United States senators; one hundred and fifty-two representatives in the lower House of Congress, and an uncounted number of members of the State legislatures; fifteen bishops of the Protestant Episcopal Church; two of the Methodist Episcopal, and one of the Reformed Episcopal; thirty-nine presidents of universities and colleges; one hundred and eighty-eight professors and fifteen famous headmasters; fifty-two officers of a rank above that of lieutenant, in the navy; and in the army, during the World War alone, ninety-six

officers above the rank of captain, and thirty-two in the Federal public health service; and also three surgeon-generals.

Two thousand, five hundred, and seventy-one of the matriculates of the University of Virginia left the precincts after winning degrees. About four thousand of these were graduates of the three great professional departments of law, medicine, and engineering alone. An army of twenty-two thousand, six hundred young men have been trained within her bounds; and there is not a single pursuit in life which has not been advanced in usefulness and distinction by their talents, their industry, and their integrity.

"The story of a great seat of learning," said Randolph H. McKim, one of the most loyal of these alumni, "is not in the census of its professors, its courses, its students; not in its buildings, its laboratories, its apparatus, its library, its equipment; but in the kind of men it turns out. We honor the University of Virginia above all the other American institutions because she has best fulfilled the highest function of a university — the development and training of a noble type of manhood. We love her because she helped to make us self-respecting men; because she taught us the dignity of hard work; because she made us understand that her honors and rewards were reserved for real scholarship; because she taught us to despise shams; because she refused us diplomas which we did not deserve; because she set truth and integrity above academic honors; above all, because she trusted and so made us men." "Young men are trained at the University of Virginia to their professions," said Dr. Calisch, the distinguished Rabbi of Richmond, "but they are also trained to a keener realization of not only the use but the privilege of knowledge,— to

an appreciation of the truth that, while education may be the test of life's trade, yet back of the test is the hand, and back of the hand, is the heart, and within the body is the soul."

In looking back upon the history of the University of Virginia, it is seen that that institution has, from the beginning, in spite of the originality of its elective system, been always faithful to the scholastic tradition; and while it has, from period to period, changed in ways of importance, as called for by the altered conditions of the times, it has not varied in its respect for the standards of genuine scholarship, in its tests of upright conduct, and in its spirit of patriotism. The principles of non-sectarianism, of student self-government, of personal honor and freedom, of merit as the only basis of degrees, of liberty in the choice of studies, of thoroughness in their pursuit,—all remain, in its administration, as inviolate today as during the early years of its existence. At the same time, the old attitude of collegiate aloofness has been modified under the influence of a more complex frame-work of society. It has been correctly asserted that there is not a single creative, constructive force at work in the Southern States in our own day,—whether it is in the province of religion, or of education, or of public health, or in any other field,—to which the University of Virginia is not earnestly endeavoring to respond through the services of its President and Faculty.

In following out this policy, the University of Virginia has been seeking to expand in obedience to the imperative call of our own era, without any real subversion of those great ideals embodied in the traditions which have descended to it from the past. As long as the ornate entablatures and stately columns of its buildings shall stand

to whisper to the sensitive ears of its students the glory and the grandeur of the Grecian and Roman Ages; as long as the splendid record of its great alumni shall survive to inspire each successive generation with a thirst for achievement in every province of life; as long as the story of its learned, devoted, and unselfish teachers shall be told; as long, indeed, as the spiritual presence of the Master Builder himself shall pervade the atmosphere of those beautiful precincts, the pride of his last years and the token of his immortality,—just so long as all these lofty memories and beneficent influences shall last — and when can they die? — the ideals which have conferred so much distinction on the University of Virginia can never be forgotten or neglected. It is this noble heritage of scholastic and personal accomplishment, coupled with a quick responsiveness to the lessons of each age as it passes, which assures for that institution a practical infinity of existence.

There is no other seat of learning of equal importance in the United States which has been called upon to face and overcome the consequences of so many depressing events. The wild riots of its students in its early history seriously threatened its very existence, but, in the end, they were permanently put down. It saw all the young matriculates of 1861 drawn away to the battle-field, but it refused to turn the key upon its lecture-halls. During the first decades following the close of the War of Secession, there were recurring intervals when it languished for lack of means, but it never consented to lower its standards in order to replenish its treasury. Its main building was destroyed by fire, but, undismayed, it not only restored what had been lost, but added an imposing group to the circle of the original structures. Through all these sombre periods, when there was so much reason

for dejection, it remained unhesitating and unshaken in its loyalty to the principles of its foundation, confident that, in the end, its own magnetic needle of courage, and firmness, and fidelity, would guide it safely through storm and darkness to the harbor of happier and more prosperous times. Nor was this constancy of the University of Virginia to its inherited ideals confined to scholarship, and personal honor, and political concepts, and religious dogmas. During the War between the States and the World War alike, its record demonstrated the staunchness and ardor of its patriotism. In no great emergency, national or sectional, has it shown itself to be reluctant or dilatory. It has been summoned more than once to play a part on the stage of national and world events, and it has never failed to play that part in a way which was worthy of the great memories that cluster about its lofty Rotunda, its peaceful arcades, its beautiful lawns, and its classic pavilions.

Throughout every stage of the first one hundred years of its existence, the University of Virginia has never swerved in loyalty to the wise teachings of the Fathers of the Republic. The conception of national liberty and personal freedom which has been held by the Anglo-Saxon peoples in all lands where they have established their homes is the conception which it too has always entertained. It upholds,—and we believe will continue to uphold,—the general principles of our race, whether they are applicable to government, or society, or morality. Above all, it has been true,—and we believe will continue to be true,—to the particular principles which its immortal founder proclaimed: absolute freedom of the mind in its outlook upon all things; justice that considers neither wealth, nor class, nor sect; unselfish service to the community in every province of

action, and in every rank of society; and devotion to country which knows no reservation of energy and no limit of sacrifice. During the last one hundred years, the majestic shade of that founder has seemed to brood above his beautiful academic village ever solicitous to warn, to guide, and to inspire; and his great spirit will continue thus to brood as long as those noble buildings, the offspring of his genius and his loving care, shall stand, to illustrate, in the course of future ages, the exquisite refinement of his taste, the practical grasp of his intellect, the absolute correctness of his foresight, and the incomparable grandeur of his conceptions for advancing the welfare of mankind.

APPENDIX A.

NAMES OF ALUMNI INSCRIBED UPON THE UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA MEMORIAL TABLET DEDICATED TO THOSE WHO PERISHED IN THE WORLD WAR

Robert Dunaway Adams
George Wayne Anderson, Jr.
Adair Pleasants Archer
Samuel Chandler Baker
Andrew Beirne Blair, Jr.
William Ewing Boone
Harry Whiting Brigham
Morris Fountaine Briggs
Andrew Courtney Campbell, Jr.
Lucian Carr (3rd)
Thomas Clay Carter, Jr.
Frank Palmer Christian
Leroy Howard Clapp
Paul Lee Cocke
John Hayes Collett
Robert Young Conrad
Mortimer Park Crane
John Cleburne Culin, Jr.
Thomas William Cumming
James Hodges Drake, Jr.
Wilson Brown Dodson
Fritz Leopold Dressler
John Patrick Driscoll
Charles Benjamin Duncan
John Dunn (4th)
Edward Cary Eichelberger
James Heath Ewell, Jr.
Leonidas Barkdull Faulk
Lawrence Edward Flannagan
William Alexander Fleet
Robert Goldthwaite, Jr.
Norborne Russell Gray
Tom Dunbar Halliday

Alexander Pope Humphrey, Jr.
Edward Hammond Johnson
Charles Lafayette Kinney, Jr.
Charles Clement Kite
Walter Kiloh Knight
Maurice Lentilhon Lequin
Frank Nelson Lewis
John Marye Lewis
Thomas Bayard Long
John Lyon
James Rogers McConnell
Stephen Patrick McGroarty
Judson McCune McManaway
Charles Oscar Maas
Randolph Fitzhugh Mason
Eugene Noble Mayer
Farrell Dabney Minor, Jr.
Victor Sharp Metcalf
Joseph Simpson Monroe
Daniel Clovis Moomaw
Hawley Brownell Olmstead
Estes Paine
Francis Worth Payne
William Lawrence Phillips
Herbert Windsor Reed
Wyatt Rushton
Alexander Rives Seamon
Vivian Slaughter
Basil Sherwood Snowden
Henry LeNoble Stevens
John Stoddart
George Olin Tilghman
Charles Kremer Tuohy

Kensey Johns Hammond, Jr.
John Randolph Harman
John Ravenswood Hicks
Walter Scott Hoen
James Alfred Holden
Peter Puryear Homes
Frank Hough

Elmer Hoover Van Fleet
Eugene Russel Wheatley
Victor McDowell Whitside
Richard Bland Williams
Robert Hancock Wood, Jr.
William Edward Word, Jr.
Frank Leslie Young

APPENDIX B.

A very large proportion of the authorities for the five volumes of this history have consisted of a mass of original materials of a very miscellaneous, not to say, fugitive, character; and in weighing the credibility of their statements at the first reading, it was not easy, or even possible, to detect the shades of inaccuracy that sometimes marked them.

The following explanations, changes, modifications, and additions,—the fruits of further investigation,—are suggested in order to impart greater clearness or greater correctness to the text of the first four volumes. In volume I, on page 2, line 4, "civic," as being more exact, should be substituted for "executive;" on page 4, line 17, "these men" for "them;" and on page 137, line 7, "Braidwood," for "Broadwood." Substitute "spot" for "site" on page 171, line 1; "larger" for "large;" on page 248, line 10; "unexceptionable" for "unexceptional" on page 275, line 24; and also in volume II on page 55, line 19, and on page 150, line 24; and; in volume I, "doctorate" for "doctrinate" on page 332, line 11, and "Winthrop" for "William," on page 362, line 29. The quarried stone referred to on page 256, line 7, of the same volume was suitable for Tuscan capitals and bases, and was so used by Gorman. Substitute "practicable" for "practical," on page 113, line 11 in volume II. The name of Edwin Conway was omitted in the list of hotel-keepers given on page 222 in same volume. The fixed salary, namely, one thousand dollars, of the professors was not included in the sum of \$2,250 mentioned in line 4 of page 99 of volume III. This referred only to the fees. In stating on page 194, in volume III, that Chapman Johnson was of "obscure parentage," we did not intend to convey the impression that he was of "obscure family." The family, in a previous generation, had occupied an excellent social position, but the social status of his parents had been seriously lowered through extreme impoverishment. Substitute in same volume "1856" for "1866" on page 219, line 15; and "calculate" for "celebrate" on page 275, line 12. It should be "Maddock," not "Maddox," in preface of volume III. The new system of academic degrees was adopted at the meeting of the Board of Visitors, held in December, 1891, and not at the meeting held in December, 1893. See page 396, line 13, in volume III. The Beta Theta Pi should be added to the list of fraternities mentioned in the note to page 96 in volume IV. McGuire, referred to on page 138, line 30, of the same volume, was not then a "recent graduate," and Greenway, referred to on page 145, line 4, had been a member of the football team earlier than 1894. It

was John P. Poe, not Johnson Poe, who served as football coach. See volume IV, pages 144, 345. W. Gordon McCabe was of a somewhat remoter descent than grandson of the signer of the Declaration of Independence. See page 221 in same volume. It was not the "three years," but the "three Rs" which limited the primary education in 1894. See volume IV, page 237, line 34. Substitute "autumn" for "spring" on page 145, line 1 in same volume, and "runs" for "games" on page 351, line 25. The Delta Kappa Epsilon Chapter obtained permission, in 1900, to build a brick home as mentioned on page 336 in volume IV, but the structure was not completed until a much later date, owing to the delay in collecting the fund to cover the cost. It is stated in *Corks and Curls* for 1921 that the Phi Kappa Sigma Chapter, and not the Delta Kappa Epsilon Chapter was the first to be established at the University of Virginia. Professor James M. Garnett, in his History of Eta Chapter, D. K. E., affirms that this was the first fraternity chapter to be founded at the University of Virginia, and that it was followed by Phi Kappa Psi and the Phi Kappa Sigma, in succession.

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